COLLEGE HANDBOOK
OF COMPOSITION

WOOLLEY AND SCOTT

John France

COLLEGE HANDBOOK OF COMPOSITION

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PREFACE

The College Handbook of Composition is a new member of the Woolley family, built on a new plan to serve a purpose somewhat different from that of any other member of the group. Like the original Woolley Handbook, it is designed to be used by students of composition for reference, at the direction of the instructor, in case of errors in themes, and for independent reference by persons who have writing of any kind to do and who want information on matters of grammar, spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, manuscript-arrangement, or letter-writing. The rules that make up the principal features of the book are, therefore, very much the same, for more than twenty years of continuously successful use and a large progeny of imitators have proved them to be fundamental and trustworthy guides to all who are engaged in writing.

But the rules have been considerably modified. Some changes were made when the Handbook was revised in 1919, and more were introduced in the New Handbook of Composition published in 1926 to adapt the rules to such modifications in the use of English as have been established beyond question in the time since the first Handbook was published. The present manual goes still farther by eliminating some rules that have come to seem too rigid; others have been somewhat softened; and a number of new ones have been added. These changes indicate a liberal attitude towards current usage as established by masters in the art of writing, but no departure from the general principle that the student should observe many rules of usage which may on occasion be ignored by accomplished writers.

The tendency to minimize the amount of rhetorical theory in the elementary course in composition has in many places led to the omission of a rhetoric text. But in almost all cases this has not been found satisfactory, because there has generally been felt a need of a minimum of theory on which to base rules of practice. The College Handbook may be used not only as a handbook of composition but also as an outline of the principles of rhetoric and composition so arranged as to present and illustrate the principles on which the rules are based. Those courses requiring only a minimum amount of rhetorical theory with a maximum of practice may therefore be based on this book without the addition of any other text. The rules are so grouped that together with brief statements of rhetorical principles they constitute a succinct but comprehensive treatment of unity, coherence, and emphasis as applied to the sentence, the paragraph, and the whole composition. In connection with the study of the sentence special attention should be directed to Appendix D, which presents a somewhat detailed study of connectives. Paragraph development is fully illustrated, and a fully illustrated section on outlining lays emphasis on the importance of careful organization in the whole composition. Diction and the qualities of style are given adequate attention.

Examples to illustrate the rules have been chosen to present as wide an application as possible, and in a large number of cases have been drawn from the writings of well-known authors. Each principal section of the book is followed by a generous number of exercises, so placed that they are immediately accessible but not obtrusive. Spelling, punctuation, grammar, and pronunciation are given the practical consideration shown by many years of experience to be most often needed by students.

Composition involves much more than the writing

down of facts and ideas in orderly fashion. The gathering of material is often a nightmare to students, instructors, and librarians alike. To make this task as easy and effective as possible full directions are given for the use of the library, the taking of notes, the evaluating of sources, and the proper methods of documentation by means of footnotes. For those who aspire to get their writings into print directions are given for marking manuscript for the printer, and for reading and marking proof sheets — all the chores the writer must perform if he is to get his ideas decently in order on the printed page.

For such virtues as this volume may possess more credit is due to Mrs. Evelyn Tripp Berdahl than this general acknowledgment of her helpfulness can indicate; and our joint indebtedness to numerous members of the Department of English in the University of Illinois, where we both labored and learned for years, is here gratefully recorded.

F. W. S.

New York City
April, 1928

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COLLEGE HANDBOOK OF COMPOSITION

THE USE OF THE LIBRARY

General Information Regarding the Library

The college student or any one else who has writing to do must know how to use a library. First of all he should know how to use the card catalogue. He will also find it valuable to know the system of classifying books in his library and to become familiar with general reference books and magazine indexes.

Card catalogue

1. The card catalogue is the index of the library and it lists on 3 × 5-inch cards every book contained in the library. These cards are filed alphabetically according to author, title, and subject in a cabinet of small drawers which are labeled to indicate their contents.

An author card has as its heading the surname of the author. (A heading is the word, phrase, or name at the top of the card by which the card is filed.) An author card is made for every book the author of which is known, whether the authorship is individual or group. An exception occurs in the case of work by so many different authors that their number is prohibitive for entry.

A title card has as its heading the title of the book and is filed according to the first word of the title not an article. Works with titles likely to be remembered, anonymous works, and periodicals have title cards.

A subject card has as its heading the name of the subject treated in the book. (The headings for subject cards in most libraries are in red type.) When a student is looking for a book by an author with a common surname, whose forename he does not know, he will save time by looking under the subject of the book rather than under the author's name, for there may be many cards by authors of the same surname. As a rule all works, with the exception of fiction, plays, and poems, have subject cards.

In addition a work may be entered not only under author, title, and subject, but also under the name of the editor, translator, or compiler.

From the information on the card the student may be able to decide whether the book will be of value to him. The card will usually contain such information as the dates of the author's birth and death, the name of the publisher, the number of pages in the book, the size of the book, and an outline of its contents.

Call slip

2. When the student has found the card for the book he desires, he should write on the call slip furnished by the library, the call number, which is printed or typed in the left-hand corner of the card, the author's name, the title, and the volume number if the work is in several volumes. (A separate slip should be made out for each book.) The slip should then be presented at the loan desk.

Systems of classification of books

3. The student is permitted to consult books on the shelves in the reference room (see Rule 4), and in many libraries he is allowed to look up books anywhere in the library. This privilege is often of benefit, for in searching for a book, the student may find books that he might

otherwise overlook. He should, therefore, know the system of classification in his library. The books in general libraries are arranged according to subject matter; for instance, all the histories of England will be placed together. Either the Library of Congress system or the Dewey Decimal system is commonly used. According to the former, all knowledge is divided into twenty parts, and each part is indicated by a letter of the alphabet, with arabic numerals and additional letters for subdivisions. The main classes are:

A General works — Polygraphy
B Philosophy — Religion
C History — Auxiliary sciences
D History and topography (except America)
E and F American history
G Geography — Anthropology
H Social sciences
J Political science
K Law
L Education
M Music
N Fine arts
P Language and literature
Q Science
R Medicine
S Agriculture — Plant and animal industry
T Technology
U Military science
V Naval science
Z Bibliography and Library science

The Dewey Decimal system divides all knowledge into ten parts, and gives each part a number. These main classes are each divided into nine subdivisions, which are further divided into nine sections each. Further divisions are indicated by a decimal point and additional numerals. The main classes are:

000 General works	500 Natural science
100 Philosophy	600 Useful arts
200 Religion	700 Fine arts
300 Sociology	800 Literature
400 Philology	900 History

Reference Books

Reference books

4. A reference book is a book that contains a great deal of information in a small space and that is so planned that the facts can be found quickly; dictionaries and encyclopedias are typical reference books. These books as a rule are kept together in a separate room and cannot be taken from the library. The following lists include important reference books frequently used.

General Reference Books

Encyclopædia Britannica. (14th edition, 1929. 24 vols.) Material of value only to the specialist has been much condensed in this edition.

New International Encyclopedia. (Latest edition 1922, 24 vols. Supplement, 1930. 2 vols.)

Encyclopedia Americana. 1918–1920. 30 vols. (Revision 1922.)

New International Year Book. 1907–. Forms an annual supplement to the *New International Encyclopedia.*

Americana Annual. 1923–. Annual supplement to the *Encyclopedia Americana.*

Dictionaries

New Century Dictionary. 1927. 3 vols. (Also 2 vols.)

New English Dictionary. 1888–1928. 10 vols. (Also referred to as *Murray's Dictionary* or the *Oxford Dictionary.*) A monumental work. Especially valuable for derivations and the changes in the meanings of words.

New Standard Dictionary. 1913.

Webster's New International Dictionary. 1928. Reprint of 1909 edition, with prefatory list of new words.

Synonyms and Antonyms

ALLEN, F. S. *Allen's Synonyms and Antonyms.* 1921. Words characterized as "affected," "bookish," "rare," etc. No definitions.

CRABB, GEORGE. *Crabb's English Synonymes.* 1917. Distinctions in meaning given.

FERNALD, J. C. *English Synonyms and Antonyms.* 1914. Distinctions in meaning given. Use of prepositions.

ROGET, P. M. *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases.* 1925. Valuable for enlarging the vocabulary.

Reference Books for Special Subjects

Agriculture

Agricultural Index. 1916–.

BAILEY, L. H. *Cyclopedia of American Agriculture.* 1907–1909. 4 vols.

United States Department of Agriculture Publications. For example, the *Yearbook* and the *Experiment Station Record.*

Allusions, Proverbs, Quotations

ALLIBONE, S. A. *Poetical Quotations from Chaucer to Tennyson.* 1891.

—— *Prose Quotations from Socrates to Macaulay.* 1889.

APPERSON, G. L. *English Proverbs and Proverbial Phrases.* 1929.

BARTLETT, JOHN. *Familiar Quotations.* 1914.

—— *New and Complete Concordance . . . of Shakespeare.* 1910.

BENHAM, W. G. *Book of Quotations, Proverbs and Household Words.* 1924.

BREWER, E. C. *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable.* 1923.

—— *Reader's Handbook* of famous names in fiction, allusions, references, proverbs, plots, stories, poems. 1898.

CRUDEN, ALEXANDER. *Complete Concordance to the Holy Scriptures.* 1916. A good desk concordance.

GERWIG, HENRIETTA. *Crowell's Handbook for Readers and Writers.* 1925.

HOYT, J. K. *New Cyclopedia of Practical Quotations.* 1922.

STRONG, JAMES. *Exhaustive Concordance of the Bible.* 1894.

WALSH, W. S. *International Encyclopedia of Prose and Poetic Quotations from the Literature of the World.* 1908.

Architecture

FLETCHER, B. F. *History of Architecture.* 1921.

STURGIS, RUSSELL. *Dictionary of Architecture and Building.* 1901. 3 vols.

Art

CHAMPLIN, J. D. and PERKINS, C. C. *Cyclopedia of Painters and Painting.* 1892. 4 vols.

REINACH, SALOMON. *Apollo.* 1924.

FIELDING, MANTLE. *Dictionary of American Painters, Sculptors and Engravers.* 1927.

Biography

Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography. 1916–1928. 11 vols.

Dictionary of American Biography. (20 vols.) Vols. 1–5. 1928–1930.

Dictionary of National Biography. 1885–1900. 63 vols. Supplements: 1901, 3 vols.; 1912, 3 vols.; 1927, 1 vol.

Lippincott's Universal Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology. 1915.

National Cyclopedia of American Biography. 1893–1929. 20 vols. "Current volume A–B." Loose leaf.

Who's Who; Who's Who in America; Wer Ist's, Qui êtes-vous, etc. Separate books containing brief accounts of living men and women. Issued more or less regularly in various countries.

Classical Antiquities

PECK, H. T., editor. *Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature.* 1896.

Commerce, General Business, Economics, Statistics

CHISHOLM, G. G. *Handbook of Commercial Geography.* 1928.

CLARK, V. S. *History of Manufactures in the United States.* 1929. 3 vols.

FREEMAN, W. G. and CHANDLER, S. E. *The World's Commercial Products.* 1907.
MULHALL, M. G. *Dictionary of Statistics.* 1903.
NEWARK, N. J. Free Public Library. 2400 business books and guide to business literature. 1921.
—— Business books: 1920–1926. 1927.
Publications of the United States Department of Commerce. For example, *Commerce Yearbook; Survey of Current Business; Statistical Abstract.*
United States. Bureau of the Census. *Census.* 1790–.
WEBB, A. D. *The New Dictionary of Statistics.* 1911.
World Almanac. Annual. 1868–.

Current Events and Progress

American Year Book. 1910–1919. 1926–.
Europa Year Book. 1926–.
New York Times Index. 1913–. Subject index to the *Times.* Forms an outline of current history.
Public Affairs Information Service. 1915–.
Statesman's Year Book. 1864–.
Times (London) *Official Index.* 1906–.

Customs and Holidays

BRAND, JOHN. *Observations on the Popular Antiquities of Great Britain.* 1888–1890. 3 vols.
CHAMBERS, ROBERT. *Book of Days.* 1891. 2 vols.
HAZELTINE, M. E. *Anniversaries and Holidays.* 1928.
HAZLITT, W. C. *Faiths and Folklore.* 1905. 2 vols.
SCHAUFFLER, R. H. *Our American Holidays.* 1907–1927. 11 vols.
WALSH, W. S. *Curiosities of Popular Customs . . .* 1898.

Education

Education Index. 1929–.
MONROE, PAUL, editor. *Cyclopedia of Education.* 1911–1913. 5 vols.

Engineering

Engineering Index. 1884–.

Gazetteers and Atlases

Cambridge Modern History. Vol. 14, Atlas. 1912.
Commercial Atlas of America. 1925.
Commercial Atlas of Foreign Countries. 1921.
Lippincott's New Gazetteer. 1922.
Times Survey Atlas of the World. 1924.

History

Cambridge Ancient History. 1923–. (8 vols.) Vols. 1–7, Atlas, Vols. 1–2.
Cambridge Medieval History. 1911–. (8 vols.) Vols. 1–5.
Cambridge Modern History. 1902–1912. 14 vols.
Channing, Edward, Hart, A. B. and Turner, F. J., *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History.* 1912.
Gross, Charles. *The Source and Literature of English History from the Earliest Times to about 1485.* 1915.
Larned, J. N. *Literature of American History;* a bibliographical guide. 1902.
New Larned History for Ready Reference. 1922. 12 vols.
Ploetz, K. J. *Manual of Universal History.* 1925.
Writings on American History, 1902, 1903, 1906–1924.

Home Economics

Planché, J. R. *Cyclopœdia of Costume.* 1876–1879. 2 vols.
Robertson, A. I. *Guide to Literature of Home and Family Life.* 1924.

Industrial Arts

Industrial Arts Index. 1913–.

Law

Corpus Juris. 1914–1929.
Index to Legal Periodicals. 1908–. Vols. 1–48. A–Pl.
United States. Library of Congress. *State Law Index.* 1925–. 1929–.

Literature

A. L. A. Catalogue. 1926.

Authors' Digest. 1927. 18 vols.

BAKER, E. A. *Guide to the Best Fiction in English.* 1913.

—— *Guide to Historical Fiction.* 1914.

Book Review Digest. 1905–.

Cambridge History of American Literature. 1917–1921. 4 vols.

Cambridge History of English Literature. 1907–1917. 14 vols.

CLARK, B. H. *British and American Drama of Today.* Study outlines, biographies, and bibliographies. 1915.

—— *Continental Drama of Today.* Outlines for study, biographies, and bibliographies. 1914.

CROSS, T. P. *Bibliography and Methods of English Literary History.* 1919.

Dramatic Index, 1909–.

FIRKINS, INA. *Index to Plays,* 1800–1926. 1927.

—— *Index to Short Stories.* 1923. Supplement, 1928.

GAYLEY, C. M. and SCOTT, F. N. *Methods and Materials of Literary Criticism.* Vol. I. GAYLEY and SCOTT. 1899. Vol. II. GAYLEY and KURTZ, B. P. 1920.

GRANGER, EDITH. *Index to Poetry and Recitations.* 1918. Supplement, 1929.

HEFLING, HELEN and RICHARDS, EVA. *Index to Contemporary Biography and Criticism.* 1929.

KELLER, H. R. *Readers' Digest.* 1929.

LOGASA, HANNAH and VER NOOY, WINIFRED. *An Index to One-act Plays.* 1924.

MACKERROW, R. B. *Introduction to Bibliography for Literary Students.* 1927.

MANLY, J. M. and RICKERT, EDITH. *Contemporary British Literature.* Bibliographies and Study Outlines. 1928.

—— *Contemporary American Literature.* 1929.

MOULTON, C. W., editor. *Library of Literary Criticism of English and American Authors.* 1901–1905. 8 vols.

Medicine

Quarterly Cumulative Index to Current Medical Literature. 1916–.

STEDMAN, T. L. *Practical Medical Dictionary.* 1928.

Music

GROVE, SIR GEORGE. *Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians.* 1928. 6 vols.
SEARS, M. E. *Song Index.* 1926.

Mythology

EDWARDES, MARIAN. *Dictionary of Non-Classical Mythology.* 1912.
GAYLEY, C. M. *Classic Myths in English Literature and in Art.* 1911.
Mythology of All Races. 1916–1927. Vols. 1, 3–4, 6–12.
See also references under *Classical Antiquities.*

Philosophy and Psychology

BALDWIN, J. M. *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology.* 1901–1905. 3 vols.
Psychological Index. 1894–.
RAND, BENJAMIN, compiler. *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects.* 1905.

Political Science

Cyclopedia of American Government. 1914. 3 vols.
Political Handbook of the World. 1929–.
See also references under *Current Events and Progress.*

Religion

Catholic Encyclopedia. 1907–1922. 17 vols.
Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics. 1911–1927. 13 vols.
FRAZER, SIR J. G. *The Golden Bough.* 1907–1915. 12 vols.
Jewish Encyclopedia. 1901–1906. 12 vols.
SCHAFF, PHILIP. *The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge.* 1908–1914. 13 vols.

Social Sciences

Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. (15 vols.) Vols. 1, 2. 1930.

General Science

International Catalogue of Scientific Literature. 1902–.
THOMSON, J. R. *The Outline of Science.* 1922. 4 vols.

Anthropology and Ethnology

RIPLEY, W. Z. *Selected Bibliography of Anthropology and Ethnology of Europe.* 1899.

Peoples of All Nations. 1922–1924. 7 vols.

Botany

Botanical Abstracts. Monthly publication containing abstracts and citations. 1918–.

BRITTON, N. L. and BROWN, A. *Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States.* 1913. 3 vols.

Chemistry

BOLTON, H. C. *Select Bibliography of Chemistry.* 1899–1904.

Chemical Abstracts. American Chemical Society. 1907–.

THORPE, SIR THOMAS. *A Dictionary of Applied Chemistry.* 1922–1927. 7 vols.

Geology

Publications of United States Geological Survey. For example, *World Atlas of Commercial Geology; Geological Atlas of the United States;* and various bibliographies.

Natural History

Nature Library. 1905–1912. 17 vols. By several authors, treating such subjects as animals, birds, shells, butterflies, trees, etc.

Physics

GLAZEBROOK, SIR RICHARD, editor. *A Dictionary of Applied Physics.* 1922–1923. 5 vols.

Sociology

BLISS, W. D. P. and BINDER, R. M., editors. *New Encyclopedia of Social Reform.* 1908. Includes historical, biographical, and statistical material. Somewhat out of date.

See also references under *Current Events and Progress; Debate Material; Commerce, General Business, and Statistics; Political Science.*

Miscellaneous

Debate Material

Foster, W. T. *Argumentation and Debating.* 1917.

The Handbook Series. The former *Debater's Handbook Series* is now incorporated with this. Bibliographies; reprints from books, magazines, etc.; briefs.

Intercollegiate Debates. 1909–1917. 7 vols. A year book of college debating with records of questions and decisions, specimen speeches, and bibliographies.

Phelps, E. M. *Debaters' Manual.* 1929. Articles selected from authorities on debating. Bibliographies.

Reference Shelf. 1922–. Pamphlets on current topics.

University Debaters' Annual. 1915–. Constructive and rebuttal speeches delivered in debates of American colleges and universities. Briefs and bibliographies.

See also references under *Current Events and Progress; Commerce, General Business, and Statistics.*

United States Public Documents

Swanton, W. I., compiler. *Guide to United States Government Publications.* 1918.

Various catalogues and price lists covering United States public documents, 1789–.

Guides to Reference Books and to the Use of the Library

Arnett, L. D. *Elements of Library Methods.* 1925.

Hutchins, Margaret, Johnson, Alice, and Williams, Margaret. *Guide to the Use of Libraries.* 1925.

Mudge, I. G. *Guide to Reference Books.* 1929.

Magazines

Magazines

5. Magazines are the principal sources of information on subjects of current interest. In the better class of magazines the student will often find articles of permanent value. Every year or six months, or at other convenient periods, the numbers of a magazine are bound together in a volume and are thus available

for reference use in a convenient form. The following list gives a few of the standard magazines which are of importance for general reading, current history, and book reviews:

General

American

American Mercury
American Review of Reviews
Atlantic Monthly
Foreign Affairs
Forum and Century
Harper's Monthly
Living Age
North American Review
Scribner's Magazine

English

Contemporary Review
Criterion
Fortnightly Review
London Mercury
Nineteenth Century

Current Events

American

Congressional Digest
Current History Magazine
Literary Digest
Nation
New Republic
Outlook and Independent
Review of Reviews
Survey
Time
World's Work

English

Graphic
Nation and the Athenæum
New Statesman
Saturday Review
Spectator

Book Reviews

American

Bookman
Books
Virginia Quarterly Review
New York Times Book Review
Saturday Review of Literature

English

Bookman
Nation and the Athenæum
Times (London) *Literary Supplement*
Saturday Review
Spectator

Gregory, Winifred, editor. *Union List of Serials in the Libraries of the United States and Canada.* 1927.

Magazine Indexes

Magazine indexes

6. Magazine indexes contain references to magazine articles by author, title, or subject. The following magazine indexes are important.

Poole's Index to Periodical Literature. 1802–1906. Subject index only.

Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature. 1900–. Alphabetical list under author, title, and subject.

——: Supplement. 1907–1919. Includes periodicals not indexed in *Reader's Guide.*

International Index to Periodicals. 1920–. Continuation of *Reader's Guide:* Supplement.

Book Review Digest. 1905–. Lists the more important books of general interest and gives references to and often a brief digest of the reviews published about each work.

See also special indexes under subjects above.

Use of Reference Books

Judging the value of books for reference

7. In judging the value of books as sources for reference material, the student should consider certain points.

(*a*) He should distinguish between primary and secondary material; that is, between original documents or texts and some one's interpretation of that

document or text. For example, the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States are primary material; Carl L. Becker's *The Declaration of Independence; a Study in the History of Political Ideas* (New York, 1922), and James M. Beck's *The Constitution of the United States; a Brief Study of the Genesis, Formulation, and Political Philosophy of the Constitution of the United States* (New York, 1922) are secondary material. Secondary material is often as valuable to the student as primary material, but the latter may not only give information; it may also afford an opportunity of checking inaccuracies of fact or of interpretation in secondary material.

(*b*) Can one depend upon the accuracy of the statements in the book? Is the author an authority on his subject? Some information regarding the author may often be found on the title page of the book. His name is frequently followed by the degrees he has received from universities, by the names of other books that he has written, or by the names of learned societies, institutions, etc., to which he belongs. More confidence can be placed in articles if they are signed by the person writing them, for that person assumes responsibility for the accuracy of the statements. In using statistics, the student should note whether they are based on official or other reports, and whether exact reference is made to their sources. Greater confidence can be placed in a book published by a reputable firm than in others.

(*c*) Allowance must sometimes be made for the fact that the author may have political, religious, or national prejudices.

(*d*) The date of the book should be noted. (The date usually appears on the title page; if not, on the copyright page.) In many subjects the value of the material depends directly upon the date. The student should note, in examining the card catalogue, whether there is a " revised edition " or an " enlarged edition " of the book he is to use.

(*e*) Reference books that give bibliographies, that is, lists of additional material, are of value. These bibliographies are usually placed at the end of articles or chapters or at the end of the book.

(*f*) The scope of the book should be considered. One work may give a detailed analysis of the subject for the specialist; another may give only a summary. If the student is to write a short paper or to give a short talk, he would find a summary treatment in one chapter of a book of more value to him than a three-volume treatise.

Use of books for reference

8. In order to decide whether a book contains material bearing on a certain subject, the student will need to become acquainted with the contents without having to read the book through. The title page may often give him information regarding the subject treated, the field covered, the class of readers for whom the book is intended, or the point of view of the author. The preface usually states these facts, and often gives the author's reasons for writing and the names of those to whom he is indebted for assistance in the work. By a study of the Table of Contents, which may include only the chapter headings or may include a detailed analysis of the parts of the chapters, the student will gain an idea of the material in the book. Many works will contain introductory chapters

which will give a general survey of the subject, preparing the reader for the matter to follow. In the opening and concluding paragraphs of a chapter, the student may find summaries of the contents of that chapter. The book may contain a summarizing chapter at the end. The index at the end of a work is an alphabetical list of topics, persons, places, events, etc., appearing in the book. From the index, the student can quickly find out whether a particular subject is treated in the work; from the Table of Contents, however, he will get an outline of the whole work.

Taking library notes

9. Before the student takes any notes on a work that contains useful material for his paper or report, he should first read hastily the whole article, chapter, or book, as the case may be, in order to get the author's main point and his development of that point. (See Rule 8.) The student will then be better able to judge just what material he needs. In a second reading, he should note down the main point and the vital steps in the development of that point. The number of less important details noted down will depend upon the length of the paper or report to be given and the relative importance of the material to him. If the article is to furnish him only background matter, he may need to note only the main point. The shorter the notes the better, of course; yet enough of the context should be taken so that the idea cannot be misinterpreted. The student is under a moral obligation to the author, whose ideas he is using, to give the reader a correct understanding of these ideas.

The notes may be either cited or quoted. In citation, the student puts into his own words the author's

ideas. In quotation, the exact words of the author are copied and enclosed within quotation marks. Quotations may be used in place of citations when the points are very important, when they might be questioned, or when they are very aptly stated. If the student is not careful to distinguish between quoted and cited passages, he may allow borrowed phrases to appear in his paper as his own; he must make perfectly clear in his paper which ideas he has borrowed and which are his own. These points can be kept clear to a great extent by careful note-taking.

The following suggestions on the form of notes may be helpful:

a. Take notes on cards or slips of paper of a uniform size. Library card size, 3×5, is convenient, but a larger size may be used.

b. Write on one side only and do not crowd the writing.

c. State the subject in the upper left-hand corner.

d. Put each point upon a separate card; if more than one card is needed for one point, note the subject and the name of the book on each new card and number it. Number these cards and clip them together.

e. State on each card the exact source, noting the author, the work, and the page. (The bibliography at the end of the student's paper will give fuller information regarding the source. See Rules 10–13.)

f. Put quotation marks around material that is exactly quoted. If the parts are omitted, elision marks (. . .) should be used where the omission occurs. Brackets should enclose words which are not part of the quotation, but which are written within the quo-

tation marks. Do not use quotation marks for citations or paraphrases.

g. Always quote exactly, even to the punctuation marks and the spelling. If there is an obvious error in the text, insert after it the word *sic* in brackets, which indicates that the quotation is exact.

h. Formulate a system of abbreviations and follow it consistently. For instance, if the word *Renaissance* occurs frequently in the text, abbreviate it to *Ren.* Use *w.* for *with*, etc. As a rule, in a summary omit the articles, copulas, and connectives.

After the notes are taken, they may be arranged alphabetically according to the subject in the left-hand corner and filed in a tray or pasteboard box into which they fit. Guide cards may be used to indicate the divisions of the subject. The student then has his notes in a convenient form for writing his paper. (For the proper form for footnotes see Rules 14–18.)

These same directions may be followed in note-taking for "outside" reading. Since such notes do not, as a rule, have to be rearranged as do the notes for a paper, they may be more conveniently taken on loose-leaf notebook paper and may be included with the student's class notes.

Bibliography

Making a bibliography

10. As soon as the student finds a book or an article which he thinks will be of help to him, he should make a note of it. This list of books and articles is his bibliography. Each reference should be written down on a separate library card or slip of paper (3×5 inches). With only one title on a card, the student may quickly arrange his bibliography in alphabetical

order. Enough information regarding the book should be copied down so that the book may be identified easily. As a rule, the following points should be included:

(1) Name of author in full, surname first.

(2) Title of book or article.

(3) For a book: edition, if other than the first; place of publication; publisher if desired; date of publication; number of volumes, if more than one.

(4) For an article: title of periodical; volume number; page number; date of issue of the periodical (month, day, and year).

SPECIMEN BIBLIOGRAPHY CARD

881
A 8 po.Yco

Cooper, Lane

The Poetics of Aristotle, its meaning and influence
Boston: Marshall Jones and Company, 1923.

Bibliography pp. 154–157.

Additional information, not to be included in the final bibliography, may be noted on the card; as, for example, the library call number, the scope of the book, bibliography included in the book, the source of the reference, etc.

Form of finished bibliography

11. When the student has completed his paper, he can copy his bibliography from his cards on sheets of

paper and place it at the end of his manuscript. The following models will illustrate forms for various kinds of books and articles.

1. Books
   (*a*) by one author
   PARRINGTON, VERNON LOUIS. *Main Currents in American Thought.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1927.
   (*b*) By two or more authors
   BEARD, CHARLES AUSTIN, AND BEARD, MRS. MARY. *The Rise of American Civilization.* New York: Macmillan, 1927.
   (*c*) An edited text
   WORDSWORTH, WILLIAM. *The Prelude.* Edited from the manuscript with introduction and textual and critical notes by Ernest De Sélincourt. Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1926.
   (*d*) A translation
   GREGORY OF TOURS. *The History of the Franks.* Translated by O. W. Dalton. Oxford University Press, 1927. 2 vols.
   (*e*) A book in a series
   GREENE, EVARTS BOUTELL. *Provincial America. 1690–1740.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1905. (The American Nation: A History, edited by Albert Bushnell Hart.)
2. Articles
   (*a*) Magazine article
   FARR, CLIFFORD H. "The Philosophy of Growth." The *Atlantic Monthly.* CXXXVI: 508–517. Oct., 1925.
   (*b*) Encyclopedia article
   WATTS-DUNTON, WALTER THEODORE. "Poetry." *The Encyclopædia Britannica.* Eleventh edition. XXXI: 877–890.
   (*c*) Essay in a collection
   NEILSON, WILLIAM ALLAN. "Burns in England." In *Anniversary Papers* by colleagues and pupils of George Lyman Kittredge. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1913.

3. Government Publications

"Trend toward Apartment-house Living in America." *Monthly Labor Review.* Vol. XXIV, no. 6, pp. 1–18. June, 1927. United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Arrangement of bibliography

12. The bibliography is usually arranged alphabetically according to the last name of the author. If the author's name is not known, the book or article is generally placed alphabetically according to the title. If the bibliography is long, it may be advisable to classify it; as, for example, according to subject matter, or according to primary or secondary sources. (See Rule 7*a*.)

Aids in making a bibliography

13. The card catalogue, special bibliographies published by the Library of Congress, The American Library Association (the *A.L.A. Index*, the *A.L.A. Catalogue*, the *A.L.A. Booklist*), and the magazine indexes are valuable aids in making a bibliography. The student should examine the lists at the end of encyclopedia articles, and should look for bibliographies in the books that he is consulting. He should also learn to use the volumes of special bibliographies classified as 010 in the Decimal system, and as *Z* in the Library of Congress system.

Footnotes

Purpose of footnotes

14. The sources of all material not original with the writer should be acknowledged. This acknowledgment may be made in the bibliography, but it should be more specifically stated with the exact page reference in a footnote on the page on which the quotation or reference occurs.

NOTE. — Footnotes may also be used for additional explanatory material that may not conveniently go into the text.

Example: They were to regain youth as had old Æson.[1]

[1] Allusion to the myth of Medea and Æson in which Medea through her sorceries restores Æson's youth.

15. Footnotes should be placed at the bottom of the page on which the borrowed material occurs, and not at the end of the paper. (See Rule 17.) In manuscript prepared for the printer, the footnote may be placed immediately below the word or passage to which it refers, and separated from the body of the text by lines across the page above and below it. Place

16. The following points should be noted: Form

(*a*) Numbering of footnotes is preferable to the use of asterisks and other symbols.

(*b*) It is preferable in a manuscript to number the footnotes consecutively on the page, but not consecutively throughout the manuscript, for the reason that additional footnotes may be inserted without a complete renumbering. In a printed text the footnotes are often numbered consecutively throughout.

(*c*) The index number should be placed after the word or passage to which the footnote refers, and at the beginning of the footnote. (See Rule 17.)

(*d*) The first reference to a work should contain the following details in this order: (1) author's surname with initials; (2) title (of a book or periodical, underscored; of an article, quoted); (3) number of edition, if more than one; (4) place of publication, if desired; (5) name of publisher, if desired; (6) date of publication; (7) volume and page numbers. When both volume and page numbers are given, the abbreviations

vol. and *p.* may be omitted. When the page number stands alone, it is better to use the abbreviation *p.* Usually Roman numerals are used for volume numbers, and Arabic for page numbers. (For customary punctuation in footnotes, see Rule 17.)

(*e*) If the reference is the same as the one immediately preceding, the abbreviation *ibid.* (Latin *ibidem*, " in the same place ") may be used, with the volume and page reference if they are different. (See Rule 17.)

(*f*) If the footnote refers to a work previously mentioned, but not immediately preceding, the name of the author and the abbreviation *op. cit.* (Latin *opus citatum*, " the work cited ") may be used. This abbreviation can only be used when one work of an author has been cited. The entire reference must be repeated if several works have been cited. (See Rule 17.)

(*g*) If the author's name is given in the text in connection with the quotation, it will not be necessary to give the name again in the footnote.

(*h*) If the author's name and book are well known, it is sufficient to give merely the author's surname, usually in the possessive case.

Example: Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, Canto V, Stanza 1.

Text with footnotes

17. The following example will illustrate the proper use of footnotes:

Certain sundry claims of American citizens upon Mexico had been a matter of difficulty and negotiation between the two governments since 1836,[1] and were still largely unsettled. The President now hit upon these

[1] Reeves, J. S., *American Diplomacy under Tyler and Polk*, Baltimore, 1907, pp. 76-108.

claims as the "aggravated wrongs" which should be the basis for the complaints against Mexico,[2] although "many of the claims were exorbitant and some of them fraudulent."[3] Meanwhile, General Taylor, who had been sent to occupy the disputed territory beyond the Nueces River, had advanced to a position opposite Matamoras where a strong Mexican force was located, and Polk seemed to think there was some hope of a collision in the near future,[4] which would give him more satisfactory ground for his war message.

For some time, however, no hostilities occurred; the President became impatient of delay, and on May 9 the Cabinet agreed that a message recommending war should be prepared and submitted by the following Tuesday (May 12), whether the Mexican forces had committed any act of hostility against Taylor or not. Buchanan, the Secretary of State, had already drawn up a statement of the causes of complaint; the President had decided to substitute practically the precise language he himself had used in dealing with the Mexican claims in his annual message of the year before; then suddenly the situation was changed by the receipt of news that same evening from Taylor that the Mexicans had attacked and hostilities had begun. The Cabinet was immediately summoned again, and it was agreed that a message should be sent recommending vigorous and prompt measures to enable the Executive to prosecute the war.[5]

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[2] *The Diary of James K. Polk during his Presidency, 1845-1849.* Edited by M. M. Quaife, Chicago, 1910, I: 363-382.

[3] Reeves, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

[4] *Diary of James K. Polk*, I: 380.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 384-386.

18. The following words and abbreviations are used in footnotes, bibliographies, and references: Abbreviations used in footnotes, etc.

a.a.O. (*am angerführten Orte*). At the place quoted.
ad loc. (*ad locum*). At the passage cited.
art., *plural*, arts. Article.
c. or ca. (*circa*). At or near a given date.
ch. or chap., *plural*, chaps. Chapter.
col., *plural*, cols. Column.

et al. (*et alii*). And others.
f., *plural*, ff. Page following.
Fig., *plural*, Figs. Figure.
ibid. (*ibidem*). The same reference as the one immediately preceding. The volume, page, etc., may be the same or may be different.
id. or idem. The same.
infra. Below.
l., *plural*, ll. Line.
loc. cit. or l.c. (*loco citato*). The same passage as that just cited.
n., *plural*, nn. Note.
no., *plural*, nos. Number.
op. cit. (*opere citato*). The same work as one previously mentioned. To be used only when there has been but one work of an author cited. The entire reference must be repeated if several works have been cited.
p., *plural*, pp. Pages. Pp. 6–8, pages 6 to 8 inclusive. Pp. 6 f., page 6 and the page following. Pp. 6 ff., page 6 and the pages following.
passim. Everywhere.
ps., *plural*, pss. Psalm.
sec., *plural*, secs. Section.
sic. So, thus. Sometimes inserted in brackets within quoted matter after an erroneous work or date, etc., to indicate that the quotation is exact. "I saw neather [sic] one."
st. Stanza.
supra. Above.
v. or vid. or vide. See.
v.s. (*vide supra*). See above.
vol., *plural*, vols. Volume.
v. Verse.

THE WORD

Good Usage

Good usage defined

19. Good English follows the standard of good usage. Although that standard cannot be absolute, for language is living and growing, yet it is sufficiently definite to serve as a trustworthy guide. Good usage may be defined as the usage that is understood throughout the nation, that is current at the present time, and that is employed in the writing of the best English and American authors and in the speech of well-educated people. A word is in good usage, therefore, when it is in national, present, and reputable use.

National Usage

Provincialisms

20. Avoid provincialisms; that is, words peculiar to certain parts of the country and not used by the nation as a whole. The following are provincialisms: *allow*, *expect*, *guess* for *think* or *suppose*; *tote* for *carry*; *piece* for *short distance*.

Technical words

21. Avoid technical words in non-technical writing. If it is necessary to use technical expressions because no others are available, their meaning should be made clear to the non-technical reader. For the reader not familiar with sport, these athletic terms might need explanation: *fly*, *spiral*, *grounder*, *line drive*, *battery*.

Foreign words and phrases

22. Avoid foreign words and phrases. A writer who uses foreign expressions freely may give the impression of attempting to display his knowledge. A foreign phrase is occasionally permissible when there is no English equivalent to convey the exact meaning.

English equivalents are to be preferred to: *entre nous, faux pas, nouveau riche, terra firma, sub rosa.*

Idioms

23. Use idiomatic expressions, for they show the writer's familiarity with the language and add vigor and individuality to his style. (An idiom is an expression peculiar to the language.) Idioms, which may often violate the rules of grammar and logic, as, for example, the phrases *many a year* and *a few friends,* are, however, based upon well-established usage. (As a guide to good usage, one should consult the best unabridged dictionaries. See Rule 32.) Idioms do not comply with the rules of logic and grammar, and may have to be learned individually.

Idiomatic use of prepositions

(*a*) **Especial difficulty occurs in the use of the proper preposition with nouns, verbs, and adjectives that are arbitrarily joined with fixed prepositions.** Note the following correct use of prepositions most often bothersome:

ability *to,* not *of*

She has the ability to do it.

agree *to* (a proposal); *with* (a person)

angry *at, about* (a thing); *with* (a person)

bestow *upon*

compare *with* (for differences) or *to* (for similarities)

dependent *on* (see independent)

correspond *to* or *with* (a thing); *with* (a person)

devote *to,* not *in* or *on*

differ *from* (a person or thing); *from* or *with* (in opinion)

This book differs from the other in giving more details.

I differ with you about the importance of athletics.

different. The only preposition permitted by American usage is *from.* The use of *than* and *to* can be supported by good British usage.

independent *of*, not *from*
interest *in*, not *for*
listen *to*, not *at*

Listen to what I have to say.

pleased *with*
possessed *by* or *with* (an idea); *by* (a spirit); *of* (goods)
privilege *of*, not *to*
with regard to, or *as regards*, not *with regards to*, or not *in regards to*
with respect to, not *in respect of*
in search of, *to search for*, not *in search for*
stay *at* home, not stay *to* home
superior *to*, not *than*
to come, not *and*

Try to come, if you can find the time.

wait *on* (a customer); *for* (a person or thing); wait *at* (a place)

I will wait for you as long as I can (not on you).

Modifiers in double capacity

(*b*) **Idiom is violated when two or more sentence-elements are limited by a single modifying phrase or clause that is not idiomatically adapted to both.**

Wrong: He had no love or confidence in his employer.
Right: He had no love for, or confidence in, his employer. [The foregoing is correct, but awkward; the following is better:] He had no love for his employer and no confidence in him.

Wrong: I shall always remember the town because of the good times and the friends I made there.
Right: I shall always remember the town because of the good times I had and the friends I made there.

Wrong: He acquired a knowledge and keen interest in chess.
Right: He acquired a knowledge of chess and a keen interest in it.

Idiomatic expressions

(*c*) **The following faulty expressions used for idioms should be avoided:**

Wrong	*Right*
cannot help but remember	cannot help remembering
have got to	have to *or* must
I do not know if I can	I do not know whether I can
near enough that I could see it	near enough for me to see it
seldom or ever	seldom if ever
there is no doubt but that	there is no doubt that
try and come	try to come
very interested	very much [1] interested

Present Usage

Obsolete or archaic words

24. Avoid obsolete or archaic words in prose. The obsolete or archaic words used by an inexperienced writer often fail to give the humorous or quaint effect which he has desired to produce. Such words are: *anent, gain, gotten* (for *got*), *ilk, in sooth, mayhap, methinks, oft, proven* (for *proved*), *swain, thou*, etc. *Ilk* is rarely used correctly, even when its tone is acceptable.

New words and phrases

25. Avoid newly coined words until they are adopted by the best writers and speakers. Do not use *to auto, to broadcast* (except in connection with the radio), *to taxi*, etc. Note that a number of these terms come in with new inventions.

Reputable Usage

Reputable usage

26. Reputable usage is that usage set by the best writers and speakers. The right of an author to rank among the best English and American authors can be determined only by the general judgment of scholars and critics, as well as of the reading public, and only

[1] The idiomatic use of *very* with and without *much* may be made the subject of interesting discussion.

after that judgment has endured long enough to become established. A single instance of the use of a word, even by one of the best English authors, does not prove the word to be good English. The word must be shown to be in general use among such authors in order to give it the sanction of good usage. Good usage, in formal writing, does not require stiff and pedantic language; yet it does not encourage colloquialisms, improprieties, barbarisms, and slang. (Colloquialisms, improprieties, etc., may be used in dialogue to characterize the speakers.)

Colloquialisms

27. Avoid colloquialisms in formal writing. A colloquialism is an expression current in common conversation; some colloquialisms may be used by cultivated people in speech or in familiar letters but not in their formal writing.

Contractions

(*a*) **A contraction, which is a legitimate word shortened by the omission of one or more letters, may be regarded as a colloquialism.** (The common contractions are *don't, isn't, haven't, won't, I'll, we'll,* etc.)

(*b*) **Avoid colloquial abbreviations in formal writing.** Many of these abbreviations belong to campus life. Some of them are understood and are acceptable in familiar conversation; as, for example, *exam,* which is recognized by the *New English Dictionary* as a word and is marked *colloquial.* But others are not generally intelligible and should be avoided; as, for example, *con* for *condition, pro* for *probation.*

(*c*) **Note the following colloquialisms**: *certainly,* as a means of emphasis in the sentence: "We certainly had a good time"; *fix* for *mend* or *put in order; get up* for *organize; mighty* for *very* as in the sentence: "We

had a mighty good time"; *nowhere near* for *far from, not nearly, by no means*, as in the sentence: "The work is nowhere near finished"; *overly* for *greatly*, as in the sentence: "He was not overly pleased with her letter." (For other colloquialisms, see Appendix A.)

Error regarding parts of speech

28. Avoid improprieties in diction. An impropriety is the use of a word to fulfill the office of a part of speech to which it does not belong. The following are typical improprieties (see also Appendix A):

(*a*) Nouns used as verbs: *to suicide, to suspicion, to film, to chance it* (meaning *to risk it*).

(*b*) Verbs used as nouns: *a combine, an invite, a steal, eats, a good buy.*

(*c*) Adjectives used as nouns: *a canine, a feline, a drunk.*

(*d*) Adjectives used as adverbs: *real, some, this, that* (see Appendix A for these four words), *good, considerable, friendly, tolerable, powerful.*

NOTE. — As examples of the value of the use of a dictionary to determine whether a word is established in good usage, observe that *to motor* and *to finance*, both formerly used only as nouns, are found in Webster's and the New Standard, while *to film* (*to take a picture*) is found in neither.

Unauthorized formations

29. Avoid barbarisms in diction. Barbarisms are current words coined without authority from words in good standing.

Typical barbarisms are the following (see also the Glossary): *to enthuse* (see Appendix A), *to burglarize, to jell* (for *to jelly*), *tasty* (for *tasteful*), *homey* (for *homelike*), *newsy, musicianly, complected* (see Appendix A), *preventative* (for *preventive*), *illy* (for *ill*), *overly* (see Appendix A), and the contractions *gent, most* (for *almost*), and *way* (for *away*).

Analogy not decisive

NOTE. — The standing of a word depends, not on the nature of its formation, but solely on its acceptance or nonacceptance by good usage (see Rule 19). "Baseballist" and "cheesery" are bad English, though they are formed

after the analogy of *pianist* and *creamery*, which are good English.

Slang

30. Avoid slang. Slang includes improprieties, barbarisms (see Rules 28 and 29), **and other vulgar and inelegant expressions.** The use of slang is to be avoided for these reasons: it is out of tone in formal writing and speaking; it may be unintelligible to many readers; it often fails to express the exact idea; it soon loses what vivid and original qualities it may have had when first used.

Note. — There are cases in which slang expressions so aptly fit special needs that they will be adopted permanently into the language. Such usage must, however, be sanctioned by the best writers and speakers to be considered reputable. The following words (like many others), which were formerly slang abbreviations, are now considered good English: *cad, hack, mob, van.*

Extemporized formations

31. Except as a humorous device, do not use words of your own coining, without ascertaining from a dictionary whether they are authorized.

Learning Good Usage

Means of learning good usage

32. In order to learn what is good English, the student should cultivate the habit of prompt reference to books on grammar, rhetoric, and composition, and to good dictionaries. The best dictionaries are the unabridged editions of Webster's New International Dictionary, the Standard Dictionary, and Murray's New English Dictionary. Many students do not realize how much information about a word an *unabridged* dictionary gives. For example, the student can learn the syllabication of a word (the division of the word into syllables, information that he needs when he wishes to divide a word at the end of a line);

Information in unabridged dictionaries

he can find out whether an expression containing two originally separate words is to be written as one word, as a compound word with a hyphen, or as two separate words; he can learn the pronunciation; the part of speech to which the word belongs; the plural of nouns; the various verb forms, such as the present infinitive, preterit, past participle, and the present participle; the etymology or derivation of the word; the definition; the usage; synonyms; and examples showing how words are actually used.

Abridged dictionaries inferior to unabridged

There are also many short dictionaries, such as Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, the Desk Standard Dictionary, the Student's Standard Dictionary, which are produced by omitting much material given in the unabridged dictionaries. These short dictionaries are far inferior, for the purposes of a student of English, to an unabridged dictionary.

Precision

Malaprops

33. Avoid confusing words of somewhat similar pronunciation. For example, distinguish between *allusion* and *illusion*, *conscience* and *conscious*, *deceased* and *diseased*, *formerly* and *formally*, *respectfully* and *respectively*. For the definitions of these and other words often confused, see the list of words commonly misspelled under Rule 319 and Appendix A.

Words of similar meaning

34. Avoid confusing words of similar meanings. Find the word that will precisely express the thought. Note the distinction in meaning among these words: *rebellion*, *revolution*, *revolt*, *insurrection*, *mutiny*. "*Rebellion* is open, organized, and armed resistance to constituted authority; *revolution* implies the overthrow of one government and the substitution of another; as,

the Great *Rebellion* (1642–1652); the American *Revolution.* The two words are often used regarding the same event, according to the point of view. *Revolt* and *insurrection* denote an armed uprising against authority, but one of less extent than a *rebellion; mutiny* commonly denotes an insurrection against military or naval authority; as, the Peasants' *Revolt;* Whisky *Insurrection;* Sepoy *Mutiny.*" (Webster.)

Vague, ambiguous words

35. Avoid vague, ambiguous words, such as *asset, case, character, element, factor, line, proposition,* etc. (Look up these words in Appendix A.)

Effectiveness

General, specific, abstract, concrete words

36. As a rule, use specific and concrete words rather than general and abstract words. General and abstract words express indefinite, inclusive ideas; specific and concrete words express definite and limited ideas, often appealing directly to the senses. For example, *animal* is a general word and *cat* or *dog* is specific; *beauty* is an abstract idea and *an apple tree in full bloom* may be a concrete expression of the idea of beauty. (Specific and concrete words may in turn become general and abstract when compared with words of more limited application.) General and abstract words may be used to advantage when the writer or speaker wishes to summarize, or when he wishes to state his ideas very briefly and does not care to put particular emphasis on one point. The difficulty is that general and abstract words are overused because the writer's thoughts are often too vague and hazy for specific or concrete words, or because the writer is too timid or too lazy to state exactly what he has in mind. Specific and concrete words are often

effective in stirring the reader to form a definite and vivid picture. Note in the following passage how the concrete details serve to impress upon the reader's mind the opening abstract statement:

"Sovereigns die and Sovereignties: how all dies, and is for a time only; is a 'Time-phantasm, yet reckons itself real!' The Merovingian Kings, slowly wending on their bullock-carts through the streets of Paris, with their long hair flowing, have all wended slowly on, — into Eternity. Charlemagne sleeps at Salsburg, with truncheon grounded; only Fable expecting that he will awaken. Charles the Hammer, Pepin Bow-legged, where now is their eye of menace, their voice of command? Rollo and his shaggy Northmen cover not the Seine with ships; but have sailed off on a longer voyage. The hair of Towhead . . . now needs no combing; Ironcutter . . . cannot cut a cobweb; shrill Fredegonda, shrill Brunhilda have had out their life-scold, and lie silent, their hot life frenzy cooled. . . . They are all gone; sunk, — down, down, with the tumult they made; and the rolling and the trampling of ever new generations passes over them; and they hear it not any more forever." — CARLYLE.

Forceful predicate verbs

37. Use forceful predicate verbs. *Appear, be, seem* are weak, lifeless verbs.

Weak: A mountain was seen looming up in the distance.

Stronger: A mountain loomed up in the distance.

Weak: There is a horse eating grass in our yard.

Stronger: A horse is eating grass in our yard.

NOTE. — The use of forceful verbs may be overdone. (See Rule 44 *c*.) Observe the straining for effect in the following sentences taken from contemporary short stories:

Her angry words pounced out upon him.

He heaved, "Great day, this."

In her great haste her hands raced about among the papers.

Onomatopoetic words should be used with caution.

Too frequent use of such words as *buzz, chug, hiss, purr, sizzle, whir, whine,* etc., make one question the writer's sincerity and resourcefulness.

Denotation and connotation

38. Consider the tone of words. Besides their literal meaning or denotation, words have connotation or additional associative meanings which must be regarded; otherwise words may be used in the wrong surroundings. Words may be vulgar, poetic, pompous, homely, humorous, etc. *Kid* and *young child,* in popular usage, have the same denotation: but *kid* is a vulgarism and is out of place in formal writing. *Telephonic communication* is pompous; *telephone call* is preferable. *Job* is suitable when used to denote manual work; *position* is used for work of other kinds. If one is at all doubtful regarding the connotation of a word, he can find information in the distinctions among synonyms and the illustrative sentences given in an unabridged dictionary. The various books of synonyms may be of assistance. (See Rule 4.)

Brevity

Tautology

39. Avoid tautology — *i.e.*, the useless repetition of an idea, in part or entire.

Bad: If I had abundant wealth and plenty of resources . . .
Right: If I had abundant wealth . . .

Bad: Will you please repeat that again?
Right: Will you please repeat that?

Bad: The autobiography of my life.
Right: My autobiography.

Pleonasm

40. Avoid pleonasm — *i.e.*, the use of words which do not involve repetition of thought, but which are structurally unnecessary. Beware of clumsy cir-

cumlocutions, such as *along the lines of, of the nature of, of the character of,* etc.

Bad: There were two hundred students went.
Right: Two hundred students went.

Bad: It has no relation as to time or place.
Right: It has no relation to time or place.

Bad: They went through with the formalities.
Right: They went through the formalities.

Bad: He took work along the lines of banking.
Right: He took work in banking; [or] He studied banking.

Wordiness; scrappy sentences

41. Avoid burdening a statement with too many words. Avoid the similar fault of embodying in a series of scrappy sentences what could be more fitly embodied in one sentence. Put subordinate thoughts into subordinate forms — not into separate independent assertions. (See also Rule 63.) Independent assertion in excess not only gives to prose the style of a primer but wastes words. Observe the number of unnecessary words in the passage below marked *Primer style.*

Wordy: Yesterday I had occasion to be witness of a very interesting incident.
Right: Yesterday I saw an interesting incident.

Wordy: At midnight the physician made a statement saying that the governor was better.
Right: At midnight the physician stated that the governor was better.

Wordy: In the house in which we used to live when we were in Winstead was a large play-room, which was located just at the head of the stairs.
Predication reduced: Just at the head of the stairs in our house in Winstead was a large play-room.

Primer style: As you approach the island from the west, you get a view of a high cliff. This cliff is about six miles in length. It is of sandstone, and

rises about perpendicularly from the water. Numerous cracks and crevices can be seen in the cliff. . . . 45 words.

Predication reduced: Approaching the island from the west, you get a view of a high, sandstone cliff about six miles in length, rising almost perpendicularly from the water, its face seamed with cracks and crevices. . . . 33 words.

Sincerity and Naturalness

Triteness

Overworked formulas

42. Avoid trite rhetorical expressions. They compel the reader to doubt the writer's sincerity, his interest in his subject, or his capacity for original thought or expression. Of the following list of phrases, many were originally inappropriate and others have lost their force through frequent repetition:

all too soon
sigh of relief
beat a hasty retreat
the commercial world, the social world, etc.
favor with a selection
render a vocal solo
rendition
discourse sweet music
hungry as bears
repast
do justice to a dinner
toothsome viands
sought his downy couch
vast concourse
never in the history of
news leaked out
dull, sickening thud
those present
in evidence
abreast of the times
working like Trojans
herculean efforts
wended their way
enjoyable occasion
in a pleasing manner
untiring efforts
all in all
it goes without saying
bolt from a clear sky
some one has said
specimen of humanity
had the privilege
replete with interest
undercurrent of excitement
last sad rites
tonsorial parlor
checkered career
last but not least
tired but happy
cheered to the echo
breathless silence

was the recipient of
everything went along nicely
the student body
doomed to disappointment
was an impressive sight
made a pretty picture
completed the scene
nestled among the hills *or* among the trees
like sentinels guarding
sumptuous repast
all nature seemed
all nature clothed in a robe
each and every
on this particular day
long-felt want
it seems (in narrative)
fair maidens
speculation was rife
tiny tots
along . . . lines (*e.g.*, along agricultural lines)
along the line of
along these lines
as luck would have it
the proud possessor
in touch with
social function
in the last analysis
waited in breathless suspense
order out of chaos
those with whom we come in contact
imbued with
mother earth
breakneck speed

Hackneyed quotations, allusions, and proverbs

43. Avoid hackneyed quotations, literary allusions, and proverbs, such as the following:

The light fantastic toe
Truth is stranger than fiction
Teach the young idea how to shoot
Method in his madness
Sadder but wiser
Cupid has been busy
Variety is the spice of life
The best laid plans of mice and men, etc.
All work and no play, etc.
Never put off till tomorrow, etc.
Make hay while the sun shines
All is not gold that glitters
When ignorance is bliss, etc.
Music hath charms, etc.

Newspaper mannerisms

44. Certain hackneyed newspaper mannerisms are especially to be avoided. These have arisen through the effort of writers to adorn their style where no ornament was needed, or to introduce a forced humor, or

to avoid repetition of the same word. The style books of good newspapers advocate simplicity of diction, and specifically condemn these mannerisms. Repetition of the same word is to be preferred to the invention of artificial epithets. (See Rule 58.) The following offenses against good usage are especially undesirable:

Nicknames of states and cities

(*a*) **The designation of states and cities by their nicknames,** as, " the Buckeye State," " the Sunflower State," " the Gopher State," " the Cream City," etc.; and the dragging in of these nicknames where no name at all is needed.

Bad: He arrived in Boston yesterday. Many citizens of the Hub were gathered to meet him.

Right: He arrived in Boston yesterday. Many citizens were gathered to meet him.

Current newspaper rhetoric

(*b*) **The regular employment of verbal ornaments,** such as " fatal affray," " fistic encounter," " struggling mass of humanity," " scantily attired," " knights of the pen " (for *reporters*), " the officiating clergyman," " equines " (for *horses*), " canines " (for *dogs*), " felines " (for *cats*), " fair sex," " well-known clubman," " breakneck speed," " city bastile," " milady."

Straining for novelty of phrase

(*c*) **Obtrusive straining for novelty of phrase.**

Bad: The football warriors of the Badger State will play the Windy City's squad of pigskin chasers this afternoon.

Right: The Wisconsin football team will play the Chicago team this afternoon.

Bad: The guests spent the evening in doing the "light fantastic" act.

Right: The guests spent the evening in dancing.

Bad: Indefatigable knights of the pen dogged his steps as far as the hostelry.

Right: Reporters followed him to his hotel.

Affectation

High-flown language

45. Do not use high-flown language for plain things. Straining for high-sounding expressions to replace plain English makes a style weak rather than strong. For instance, say leg, not limb; letter, not kind favor; house, not residence; body, not remains; flowers, not floral offerings; funeral, not obsequies or last sad rites; "I went to bed," not "I retired"; "I got up," not "I arose." Such attempts at "fine writing" are in bad taste.

Bad: To keep the horse healthy you must be careful of his environment.

Right: To keep the horse healthy you must be careful of his stable.

NOTE. — The inexperienced writer often loses force and vigor by failing to use idiomatic phrases, which, he fears, will detract from the correctness and dignity of his style. (See Rule 23.)

Stiff: His criticism is something to which I cannot become accustomed.

Improved: His criticism is something I cannot get used to.

Stiff: If you want them to obey, you must speak more loudly.

Improved: If you want them to obey, you must speak louder.

Poetic and legal diction

46. In prose avoid the use of words suited only to poetry. Examples are *dwelt, oft, oftentimes, ofttimes, morn, amid, 'mid, 'midst, o'er, 'neath, 'tis, 'twas. Heretofore, therein, thereof, thereby*, are awkward substitutes in good natural writing for *before this event, in it*, and *of it*.

The historical present

47. In narrative relating past events, prefer the past tense to the so-called "historical present." The latter is a device intended to produce the effect of

strong emotion, but is more likely to seem affected than to create the impression desired. (For awkward shifting of tenses in narrative, see Rule 184.)

Affected: He shouted to attract her attention, but she went on toward the danger, not heeding his warning. Lashing his horse and riding swiftly toward her, he shouted again. This time she hears. She stands still and awaits him. He lifts her to his saddle and rides frantically toward the hut. [Throughout this passage the past tense should be used.]

Initials and blanks in place of names

48. Designate persons, places, and dates in a story by complete names and dates. The custom of using initials and dashes, and of representing dates in a similar manner, is obsolete; it suggests affectation.

Objectionable: In the year 18—, when my father was a young man in the little town of B——, he formed a strong friendship with a wealthy farmer, Mr. M——.

Preferable: In the year 1892, when my father was a young man in the little town of Bristol, he formed a strong friendship with a wealthy farmer, Mr. McManus.

Names for characters in a story

NOTE. — In narrative composition, definiteness, clearness, and smoothness are gained by calling the characters by name as soon as they are introduced.

Awkward: One afternoon this winter two friends of mine called at my home and suggested that we go ice-boating. Now one of these men had never been to ride in an ice-boat. The other man was warmly dressed for the occasion, but the man who had never had the experience, as it afterwards turned out, was dressed rather less warmly than usual. When we reached the lake, the first friend and I were busy getting up the sail, and did not notice that the teeth of the other man had begun to chatter as soon as the chilly breeze struck him. It happened, more-

over, that this man who was dressed so lightly was selected to sit on the end of the runner-plank, while my first friend and I managed the tiller and the sheet.

Improved: One afternoon this winter two friends of mine called at my home and suggested that we go ice-boating. Now one of these men, Tom Lamont, had never taken a ride in an ice-boat. The other man, Bert Pryor, was warmly dressed for the occasion, but Tom, as it afterwards turned out, was dressed rather less warmly than usual. When we reached the lake, Bert and I were busy getting up the sail, and did not notice that Tom's teeth had begun to chatter as soon as the chilly breeze struck him. It happened, moreover, that Tom, in spite of his thin clothing, was selected to sit on the runner-plank, while Bert and I managed the tiller and the sheet.

The writer and *we* for *I*

49. In mentioning yourself, avoid the expressions *we* and *the writer*. Use *I*, *my*, and *me*, and guard against unnecessary reference to yourself. The use of *we* in an editorial which purports to be the utterance of a board of editors is entirely proper, but as designating an individual speaker or writer it is an affectation.

Bad: We have selected for our text the second verse of the Epistle of Jude.

Right: I have selected for my text, etc.

Figures of Speech

Figures of speech

50. A figure of speech is a comparison between things of different classes, essentially unlike except in some striking particular or particulars, as, for example: "His mind works like a machine." Figures of speech, if used with care, may give clearness, vigor, aptness, and beauty to one's style. These cautions should, however, be observed:

(*a*) **Figures of speech must be fresh and original.** Do not use trite phrases. (See Rule 42.) Originality

(*b*) **Figures of speech should seem spontaneous.** Those comparisons that flash upon the mind in moments of emotion will more surely carry with them elements of truth than figures that are artificially and laboriously constructed. Spontaneity

(*c*) **Comparisons suggested by figures should be in good taste.** (See Rule 45.) Do not compare commonplace things with lofty things. Use figures sparingly in the discourse of ordinary life. Good taste

Bad: This soap will be a blessing to you in the darkest hours of Monday morning.

Bad: The empty stalls of the barn were like a desolate garden in late November.

(*d*) **Figures of speech should be essentially true**; there should be a possible basis for comparison. Observe the straining for an effect in these figures. (See Rule 44 *c*.) Truth

Bad: The white-washed fence around the old schoolhouse was like the collar of a pilgrim father.

Bad: His feet flapped across the floor like angry pancakes.

Bad: The little lake, like a tired child, snuggled down among its hills and went to sleep.

(*e*) **Figures of speech should not be used too frequently.** They may become confusing or tiresome. Overuse of figures

Bad: We sat around the fire which leaped like a thousand sprites. The cool air was as intoxicating as a draught of old champagne, and the occasional breeze was a soft caress. Now and then across the lake, which was as level as a mirror, came the call of the whip-poor-will, as lonesome as that of a lost soul.

Detailed figures of speech

(*f*) **A prolonged figure of speech worked out in detail may divert the reader's attention from the subject matter which the figure aims to ornament or make clear.**

Too detailed: The body politic is like the human body. Both begin as germs, and develop into complex structures. The sovereign power of the state is the head of the individual; the laws and customs are the brain; the judges and magistrates are the will and the sense; commerce, agriculture, and industry are the mouth and stomach which prepare and digest the food; the public finances are the blood which by the heart is distributed throughout the organism.

Incongruity with what precedes

51. Do not use a figure of speech which is incongruous with the expression preceding.

Incongruous metaphor: The officers must enforce discipline among the raw material.

Right: The officers must enforce discipline among the new men.

Incongruous metaphor: We got some oil for the wheel at a farmhouse, and thus our hotbox was nipped in the bud.

Right: At a farmhouse we got some oil for the wheel and thus prevented a hotbox.

Incongruous metaphor: He must conduct his business on an honest foundation.

Right: He must conduct his business in an honest manner; [or] He must build his business on an honest foundation.

Bad: The probe of the Fond du Lac grand jury has netted five corrupt officials.

Right: The probe of the Fond du Lac grand jury has revealed five corrupt officials; [or] The drag net of the Fond du Lac grand jury has caught five corrupt officials.

Bad: With his fortune blown to the four winds, all his ambition was crushed.

Right: All his ambition was, like his fortune, blown to the four winds; [or] In the ruin of his fortune his ambition was crushed.

Figures not carried out

52. When a figure of speech has been used, the expression following it should carry out the figure — should not (1) embody an incongruous figure or (2) be incongruously literal.

Bad: The freshman algebra course is a rocky and difficult road to travel. But whether we like it or not we are required to wade through it. [The figure embodied in "rocky road" is not carried out by the figure embodied in "wade through."]

Right: The freshman course in algebra is a rocky and difficult road to travel. But whether we like it or not, we are required to travel it.

Inferior: It made a deep impression on my mind which I shall never forget. [The figure embodied in "impression" is not carried out by the literal expression "forget."]

Right: It made a deep impression on my mind, which will never be effaced.

Grace of Style

53. Choose words that are euphonious.

Euphony: rhyme and alliteration

(*a*) Avoid rhyme and alliteration in prose.

Not euphonious: The chilling blasts blowing with cutting force.

Bad: Then came the time for the heart-breaking leave-taking.

Bad: The fountains were kept playing night and day to keep up the display.

Bad: The ship flew fearlessly forward into the fury of the storm.

Note. — This rule is not intended to discourage the sparing use of alliteration in prose as a means of increasing the force of passages designed to produce an emotional appeal.

Cacophony

(*b*) **Avoid cacophony, or harsh combinations of sound which are difficult of pronunciation.** Note that cacophony occurs where the end of one word and the beginning of the next have the same sound.

Bad: He grasped the inexplicable situation with his usual analytical skill.

Rhythm in prose

54. Avoid a regular rhythm in prose.

Bad: He bowed his head in grief before the picture of his child.

Absolute phrases:

55. Absolute phrases are often a useful aid to proper subordination and to smoothness of style. But there are two kinds of absolute phrases which, being conspicuously awkward, are best avoided; *viz.*:

Absolute pronoun

(*a*) **Absolute phrases in which the substantive is a pronoun.**

Clumsy: He gave up the task, it being too difficult.
Better: He gave up the task as too difficult.

Clumsy: I being unacquainted with the road, my party got lost.
Better: Since I was unacquainted with the road, my party got lost.

Note. — Such an absolute phrase is particularly objectionable when the pronoun refers to the subject of the sentence. In such cases wordiness is added to awkwardness, since the pronoun is pleonastic. (See Rule 40.)

Bad: I made a trip to Catalina Island in 1902, I being then in my tenth year.
Better: I made a trip to Catalina Island in 1902, being then in my tenth year.

Bad: The furnace could not be repaired immediately, it being red-hot.
Better: Being red-hot, the furnace could not be repaired immediately.

Latinistic phrases

(*b*) **Absolute phrases in which the substantive is modified by a perfect participle, especially a passive**

perfect participle. Such phrases are clumsy, unidiomatic, and suggestive of elementary Latin exercises.

Clumsy: His horse having been fed, Macy continued his journey.

Better: When his horse had been fed, Macy continued his journey.

56. Do not use a word in two senses in the same sentence or within a short space. Repetition with a change of meaning

Bad: Since several years passed since the death of his wife . . .

Right: Several years having passed since the death of his wife . . .

Bad: I couldn't get up courage to get up and investigate.

Right: I couldn't summon courage to get up and investigate.

57. Avoid awkward and needless repetition of a word or phrase. This fault may be corrected by a judicious use of pronouns, by the use of synonyms, or by recasting the sentence. Awkward repetition

Bad: MacArthur was to speak on that day; hence we selected that day for our trip.

Right: That was the day on which MacArthur was to speak; we therefore selected it for our trip.

Bad: He said that the orders said that uniforms must be worn in future.

Right: He said that the orders required the wearing of uniforms in future.

58. Prefer repetition, however, to labored and awkward avoidance of it. Awkward avoidance of repetition

Awkward: If it has this effect on a healthy skin, it will have a worse result on an inflamed cuticle.

Preferable: If it has this effect on a healthy skin, it will have a worse effect on an inflamed skin.

Straining for synonyms

NOTE. — A constant straining for conspicuous synonyms to use in referring to something previously men-

tioned is a characteristic mannerism of newspaper writers. (Cf. Rules 20 and 44.) Avoid this practice; repeat the noun, or else choose an inconspicuous synonym.

Bad: At the faculty meeting yesterday the question of football was again discussed. Those of that learned aggregation who opposed the gridiron game succumbed at the final vote.

Improved: At the faculty meeting yesterday the question of football was again discussed. The opponents of the game were defeated at the final vote.

Bad: The extremely warm weather during the past several weeks has not exactly been conducive of producing record-breaking scores at the Y. M. C. A. bowling alleys. In fact it has almost been too warm for even the most ardent lovers of the tenpin game, and enthusiasm has for some time been at a rather low ebb.

Right: The extremely warm weather of the past several weeks has discouraged the production of high scores at the Y. M. C. A. bowling alleys. It has been almost too warm for even the most enthusiastic bowlers, and the general interest in the game has been slight.

Careless repetition of the conjunction *that*

59. When the conjunction *that* is separated by intervening words from the subject and predicate which it introduces, guard against the careless repetition of *that*.

Wrong: It is pleasant to reflect that after all this work has been done and all these difficulties have been conquered, that we shall get a good rest.

Right: It is pleasant to reflect that after all this work has been done and all these difficulties have been conquered, we shall get a good rest.

Forms of expression noticeably frequent

60. Do not make many sentences in a composition or a passage noticeably alike in construction. This principle is often violated (*a*) by beginning many sen-

tences near each other with *after*, with *this* or *these*, or with *there is* or *there are*; (*b*) by using with noticeable frequency a compound sentence with two members of about equal length joined by *and* or *but;* (*c*) by using participial phrases with noticeable frequency; and (*d*) by the habitual use of *so* as a connective. (Cf. Rule 65.)

Exercise 1

Unabridged dictionaries superior to abridged

Look up each of the following words both in an unabridged dictionary and in an abridged one, and write a report showing how much more discriminatingly and clearly the larger volume explains the use of each word than the smaller one does: *idealism, Bible, liberal, court, christian, color, moral, law, evolution, catholic.* State the exact title and the publisher of each of the dictionaries consulted.

Exercise 2

Part of speech

Find out from an unabridged dictionary what part of speech each of the following italicized words is. Is each correctly used for ordinary formal discourse?

1. She plays tennis *first-rate.* 2. We stopped at a *nearby* house to inquire. 3. She is doing *up-lift* work in the slums. 4. He hopes to get a *raise.* 5. I am going, *providing* the trip is not expensive. 6. Can you give me a *recommend?* 7. I am studying *voice.* 8. *Most* everyone had heard the news. 9. I cannot give *that* much money to the stadium fund. 10. We are going to *vacation* in the West.

Exercise 3

Inflectional forms

Find out from a dictionary which one of the following forms is correct:

1. *I dove,* or *I dived.* 2. *No trump was bid,* or *no trump was bidden.* 3. *It is proved,* or *it is proven.* 4. *I wakened,* or *I woke,* or *I waked.* 5. *I swang,* or *I swung.* 6. *He was drownded,* or *he was drowned.* 7. *The ship sank,* or *the ship sunk.* 8. *The dress shrank,* or *the dress shrunk.* 9. *She wrang the clothes,* or *she wrung the clothes.*

Exercise 4

Verb transitive or intransitive?

Look up the following verbs in a dictionary. State whether each verb is transitive or intransitive, and illustrate the correct use of each verb: *propose, purpose, sit, set, frighten, scare, learn, teach, isolate, derogate, desiccate, elicit, elide, simulate, ricochet, limn, synthesize, instigate, apprehend, envisage, castigate, interdict, genuflect, deploy, collude.*

Exercise 5

Etymology

How may the etymologies given by the dictionary help one in remembering the meaning of the following words? (Note that when a series of words have the same etymology, the etymology may be given only once with the first word of the series.) *Incarnation, egregious, cruciform, umbrageous, entrepreneur, risibility, legerdemain, dénouement, metempsychosis, agnostic, contiguous, incunabula.*

Exercise 6

Good usage

Determine from an unabridged dictionary the suitability or unsuitability of the following words in ordinary formal discourse: *swallow-tail* (evening coat), *cinch, hired girl, babe, bogus, varsity, swain, whilst, sport* (a person), *walk-out* (noun), *nifty, highbrow, josh, come across, get by with, put one over on, get it across, renig, pants* (clothing), *oft-times, brainy, clean up* (to make money), *depot* (railway station), *dope* (information), *electrocute, fix you up, galore, foot the bill, gent, lief, a whole lot, minus* (without), *opine, orate, overly, photo, right away, hold-up, homey, faze, domicile, hodgepodge, up-to-date, wire* (verb), *nonce, blues.*

Exercise 7

Good usage

Consult an unabridged dictionary and decide upon the good usage for ordinary formal discourse of the italicized words or phrases in the following sentences:

1. Put the book *right* there. 2. John is a *likely* lad. 3. I cannot say *as* I am glad to go. 4. All are glad of the return to *normalcy*. 5. *I'll be back in an hour*. 6. We had *pretty* cold weather. 7. This is *all the farther* I can go. 8. When I was a boy on the farm, I *devoted most of my efforts* to taking care of the cows and pigs. 9. You *favor*

Good usage

your father in looks. 10. *Immediately* you hear him call, you must run to him. 11. There were *lots* of people at the meeting. 12. She *certainly* got a good *fit* on your coat. 13. It is *handy* to have the grocery store near you. 14. She is often so slow that I cannot *wait on* her. 15. I am *mighty* glad that you came. 16. You had better *doctor it up* before you hand it in. 17. You *mayhap* will be ready to leave then. 18. She looked very *distingué*. 19. My mother was *pernickety* about the books we read. 20. We are in a *tremendous* hurry. 21. I am going *anyhow*, even if he says I cannot. 22. I *appreciate* your feeling as you do about your own brother. 23. It will cost us *around* fifty dollars. 24. She could not help me *any*. 25. Any one of our gowns will give you *chic*. 26. It makes no more *difference* to me *than* it does to you. 27. The fog was so heavy that we *could not hardly* see the shore. 28. She has been *ill from* typhoid fever. 29. We had a pleasant evening *reminiscing* about the *little old burg in days long gone by*. 30. We saw a good *show* last night. 31. They are *as good as* engaged. 32. That was a *curious* coincidence. 33. She *failed* her examination. 34. I *never can seem* to do it well. 35. The President had expressly committed the United States to the active *support and participation in* a league or association of nations. 36. Modern children are not taught to *mind*. 37. Even though it rained all of the time, we had *quite* a pleasant visit. 38. He was too *impractical* to succeed in business. 39. You should *patronize* your neighborhood grocer. 40. Make it *snappy*. 41. He has handled the characters in his story in a *pastmasterly* fashion.

Exercise 8

Definition to be read as a whole

In consulting a dictionary about the use of a word, try not merely to get a general idea of the meaning of the word, but to discover within what *limits of meaning* the word is confined. To this end read the definition *as a whole;* do not pick out a single synonym and suppose that this and the word defined are interchangeable. *Cut* is defined thus: "To separate the parts of with, or as with, a sharp instrument; to make an incision in; to gash; to sever; to divide." To pick out the last synonym ("to divide") and reason that since *cut* means *divide*, one may say "I

Definition to be read as a whole

will cut the money among them" would be absurd. What *cut* means is ascertained not from one synonym taken separately but from the definition read *as a whole.*

Look up the following words in an unabridged dictionary; read each definition, and read the examples; write sentences illustrating the correct use of each word: *unction, sabotage, shibboleth, antiphony, stentorian, mordant, travesty, seismograph, neologism, adjudicate, impugn, contumacy, retroactive, anachronism, microcosm, macrocosm, polyandry, immanent, imminent, eminent, harbinger, panegyric, mundane, nepotism, innocuous, voodoo, anomalous, crass, cynosure, sententious, sophistication, ubiquity, chicane, denizen, duress, colloquial, hedonist, hegemony, misogyny, misogamy, misanthropy, philanthropy, meticulous, opprobrious, ostentatious, ineluctable, peccadillo, precocious, sycophant, syllogism, sinecure.*

Exercise 9

Idiomatic construction

Find out, either from explicit statements in the definitions or from examples, what idiomatic construction — especially what preposition — is required with each word; and write sentences illustrating the correct use of each word: *compare, angry, infer, talk* (verb), *agree, surrounded, suspected, speak, vary, variance, contrast, deserving, affinity, consist, amuse, accused, accountable, admission, anxious, discouraged, eager, exult, concerned, impatient, look, necessary, necessity, opposed, opportunity, inquire.*

Exercise 10

Distinctions in meaning

Consult the dictionary for the distinctions in meaning between the members of each of the following pairs of words: *neglect* and *negligence; ingenuous* and *ingenious; fewer* and *less; admit* and *confess; instinct* and *intuition; contagious* and *infectious; hygienic* and *sanitary; wit* and *humor; criticize* and *censure; farther* and *further; admit* and *confess.*

Exercise 11

Abbreviations

Consult the table of abbreviations in the front part of a dictionary so that you may understand information that is often given in abbreviated form. For example, what do

the following abbreviations mean: *OF.*, *Oxf. E. D.*, *colloq.*, *at. wt.*, *AS.*, *ff.*, *p. a.*, *pr.*, *var.*, *d.*, *e. g.*?

Exercise 12

Determine from a dictionary whether each of the following compound words should be written with a hyphen, or as one word without a hyphen, or as two or more separate words. Use of hyphen

sidewalk	already
tonight	byproduct
tomorrow	proGerman
selfevident	expresident
twentyfive	courthouse
onehundred and fiftythree	wellbred
threefourths	classmate
tendollar bill	socalled
thirtyfifth	selfsatisfied
altogether	clearcut

Exercise 13

Substitute precise words for the italicized words in the following sentences: Precision

1. I have three *aughts* in my answer to the problem. 2. *Beside* his ability as a mathematician, he has many other *assets*. 3. The decadent Roman civilization was a *feminine* civilization. 4. Much *literature* has been published about the use of limestone on farm lands. 5. Her charming innocence is *childish*. 6. We have much to learn from *heathen* cultures such as the Greek and Roman. 7. Careful management is necessary to keep farm earnings *continuously* above the average. 8. Transporting passengers and mail by airplanes has proved to be not only possible but *practical*. 9. I am quite *jealous* of your opportunity to study in Europe. 10. After supper you can have that *snug* place by the fire. 11. If you recommend me for this position, I shall appreciate the *fact*. 12. She was so *decisive* in her manner that people have always given in to her. 13. Building a concrete foundation in that racing current was a hard *proposition*. 14. The wreck was due to an *error* of the switchman. 15. It would be almost an impossibility to write a *comprehensible* paper on the eco-

nomics of man when volume after volume has been written without exhausting the subject. 16. If we give your class all of these privileges, we shall no doubt be establishing *precedence* which may be unwise. (Notice the pronunciation.)

Exercise 14

Precision

Find the precise meaning of each word in the following groups, and write sentences to illustrate that meaning.

1. Mental, intelligent, intellectual.
2. Abandon, desert, forsake.
3. Hate, detest, abhor, abominate, loathe, despise.
4. Great, large, big.
5. Give, bestow, grant, confer, present.
6. Silent, reserved, uncommunicative, reticent, taciturn.
7. Last, latest, final, ultimate, extreme.
8. Stay, stop, tarry, linger, remain, sojourn, abide, live, dwell.
9. Work, labor, toil, drudgery.
10. Memory, remembrance, recollection, reminiscence.

Exercise 15

Effectiveness

Improve, if necessary, the diction in these sentences. State the specific rule that applies to the changes made.

1. Ã propos and en passant, it might be worthy of note that Jake Schmidt, kicker and passer on the football team, is learning the lay of the land in the Chicago office of the World Life Insurance Company. 2. I greatly admire the slow, soft drawl of the Southern people, for it gives an impression of culture and refinement that the rapid-fire speaking of the Northerners does not portray. 3. The benefits from Sunday sports would be of two natures; namely, the mental and the physical. 4. A good swimmer finds enjoyment in cutting through the water with long firm strokes that cause the water to have the appearance of boiling as he ends each stroke. 5. His ridicule of human nature is nevertheless peppered with pity. 6. For the spectators on the beach, the swimming races, motor-boat races, and dashes in the sand prevent boredom from entering at any time. 7. I think that Mother Nature is at her best in the early spring. 8. Life as a beach guard is not all a bed of roses, but there are thorns in every path we

choose to follow in life. 9. Preservation of his own life is a man's only thought, and he will gladly risk another's life in order to gain his own purpose. 10. The edges of the sky raveled off into rain. Effectiveness

11. Nothing is so despicable as a bowing, smirking person trying to act a gentleman while he has a hypocrite's heart behind his smiling mask. 12. My chief enjoyment and pleasure in life has been, and still is, the pursuit of my studies in music. 13. Then I found the dark side of the picture called Life. Life was ofttimes not all sunny and bright, but there were rough edges which sorely tried the youth that I was. 14. Thus what had been an interesting ball game suddenly was turned haywire and some nice, timely hitting by Williams and Lehman was turned to no account. 15. After surviving the rush for tickets, one is herded into a stuffy car. After all available seats have been filled, the passengers have to sit on their baggage in the aisles. 16. The deflated holdings of inexperienced investors resulting from the recent stock market crash have greatly revived the belated hopes of questionable promoters who sense a growing desire on the part of the gullible public to recoup their heavy losses by making a lucky strike in a speculative venture. 17. The oculist suggested that if these new glasses did not help my eyes that I had better go to a specialist. 18. Our meat is prepared and packed by machinery and thus is untouched by the human hand. 19. When the last match has been struck, the proud possessor of the cigarette lighter with a grand flourish brings the treasured piece of mechanism from his vest pocket, and with a nonchalant flip of the lever, he proceeds to light his cigarette, but to his wonder and amazement, there is no ignition. 20. The keen intellect of the Greeks could not have reached such heights of development had not the great masters lived at a time when the stage was set for tremendous strides in the realms of thought.

21. The whole appearance of this Jersey cow is very striking. She has a soft skin. As you stroke her, it rolls smoothly between the fingers. Her hair is a rich cream color, soft and glossy. It gives her the appearance of being a well-cared-for animal. 22. Her eyes were shaded by long black lashes, curving backward in a very peculiar way, and these matched in hue her eyebrows, and the

Effectiveness

tresses that were tossed about her tender throat and were quivering in the sunlight. 23. She shielded her face with a moody hand. 24. The mountains with their forever-changing contours, seem to move in a slow dance calculated to allure him. There are young and sprightly peaks of fantastic shapes like dancing fauns; there are smoothly rounded and maternal ranges; there are hoary oldsters whose crowns are forever white with snow. 25. The sand deserts of New Mexico and Arizona are very large. They give a conception of slow death and destruction; then close by, the Grand Canyon splits the earth open as if it would swallow the whole universe. 26. Like the big apples in a barrel hauled in a wagon over rough country, Joseph Kennedy has come to the top. The trip along the highway of life here has thrown him up and now out to greater fields of endeavor.

THE SENTENCE

Unity

General principle

61. A sentence should express a single complete thought. (See discussion under Rule 73.) If it contains two or more statements, these should be so related as to express a single thought. Conversely, a sentence should contain at least one complete statement.

Statements unconnected in thought

62. Statements which conspicuously lack connection with each other should not be put in the same sentence. Defects in unity may be corrected by one of the following means:

Unity secured by division

(*a*) **By placing the unrelated statements in different sentences.**

Wrong: Mathematics is my hardest subject, and comes at eleven in the morning.

Right: Mathematics is my hardest subject. It comes at eleven in the morning.

Wrong: Ruskin was a famous English critic, and was born in 1819.

Right: Ruskin was a famous English critic. He was born in 1819.

Wrong: I have received your letter of May 6, and the shirts referred to were shipped yesterday morning.

Right: I have received your letter of May 6. The shirts referred to were shipped yesterday.

Unity secured by subordination

(*b*) **By subordinating one statement to another when the logical relationship of the statements can thus be made clear.**

Right: Mathematics, my hardest subject, comes at eleven in the morning.

Right: Ruskin, the famous English critic, was born in 1819.

Right: The shirts referred to in your letter of May 6 were shipped yesterday.

Wrong: I was visiting my grandfather last winter in Vermont and I went to a maple sugar camp.

Improved: When I was visiting my grandfather last winter in Vermont, I went to a maple sugar camp.

Wrong: There were cars ahead of us and behind us for several blocks and we could not move out of the line.

Improved: We could not move out of the line, because there were cars ahead of us and behind us for several blocks.

Unity secured by filling up gaps in thought

(*c*) **By filling up the gaps in thought.**

Wrong: Engineering has always interested me, but last winter I heard a talk by a famous engineer. Then I decided to take an engineering course.

Right: Although engineering has always interested me, I did not decide to take up an engineering course until I heard last winter a talk by a famous engineer.

Wrong: The scenery along the banks is very pretty, but the river is too shallow to be navigated by large boats.

Right: The scenery along the banks is very pretty, but few people have seen it, because the river is too shallow to be navigated by boats large enough to carry passengers.

Wrong: The operation of an incubator is simple, but no machine will work well unless it is watched.

Right: An incubator is simple in operation, but, like any other machine, it will not work well unless it is watched.

Statements strung together with *and* and *but*

63. Avoid compound sentences consisting of statements strung together with *and's* and *but's*. Make the proper division and endeavor to reduce predica-

tion; *i.e.:* express an unimportant idea in a minor form — subordinate clause, phrase, or single word — instead of a major form of predication — sentence or independent clause — when doing so does not interfere with clearness or force. The untrained writer does not perceive differences of importance between ideas, but places each in an independent clause and joins them by *and*, *but*, or *or*. The skilled writer endeavors to express these differences by exactness and variety of subordination.

Wrong: The aircraft production program was badly delayed, and a good many people think we did nothing in building airplanes, but the government reorganized the work, and put capable production specialists in command, and these men corrected the faults in the planes and increased production, and before the end of the war they were turning out planes faster than the government could supply pilots to man them.

Right: It is true that the aircraft production program was badly delayed, so that it is no wonder many people think we accomplished nothing in building airplanes. As a matter of fact, however, after the government reorganized the work and put capable production specialists in command, not only were the faults in the planes corrected, but production was increased. Before the end of the war, airplanes were being turned out faster than the government could supply pilots to man them.

Inferior: [First clause overemphasized.] I came into class and found I was five minutes late.

Predication reduced: [Subordinate clause.] When I came into class I found I was five minutes late; [or, participial phrase] On coming into class I found I was five minutes late.

Inferior: There were three big maple trees beside the house, and under them in the shade was a sand pile, and in this we children used to play.

Predication reduced: Beside the house in the shade of three big maples lay a sand pile, in which we children used to play.

Inferior: It was a fine frosty morning and two seniors were walking toward college.

Predication reduced: One fine frosty morning two seniors were walking toward college.

Bad: The time comes, and the student is unprepared to choose a major study, but yet he must choose.

Predication reduced: When the time comes, the student must choose a major study, even though he is unprepared to make the choice.

NOTE. — It is rarely advisable to begin sentences with *and* or *also*. Practice instead the use of a variety of connectives, and note that it is often advantageous to place them within the sentence rather than at the beginning. (See Rule 138.)

So, then, and *also* used to join verbs

64. Good usage does not sanction the general habit of joining coördinate verbs in a sentence by *so*, *then*, or *also*. It is preferable either to recast, subordinating one member, or to use a conjunction, *and* or *but*, in addition to the adverb.

Inferior: He was only one among many so was not observed.

Preferable: Being only one among many, he was not observed; [or] He was only one among many and so was not observed.

Inferior: I paddled the boat for a while, then fell into a reverie.

Preferable: After paddling the boat for a while, I fell into a reverie; [or] I paddled the boat for a while, and then fell into a reverie.

The *so* habit

65. Avoid the abuse of *so* as a connective between clauses. It may be correctly used to mean *if*, *accordingly*, *therefore*, etc., but it should not be used frequently or vaguely. (See discussion of *so* in Appendix D.) The problem of the *so* sentence is one of excessive

coördination due to failure to perceive that the relations between various ideas which are loosely indicated by the same connective may be expressed by a variety of connectives, and by logical subordination. (For a list of subordinating words see Appendix D.) Note that *so*, like the other conjunctive adverbs, should usually be preceded by a semicolon. (See Rule 255 *b*.)

Inferior: His wife thought he would be thirsty; so she brought a pitcher of water.
Preferable: His wife, thinking he would be thirsty, brought a pitcher of water.

Inferior: The people were opposed to him for some unknown reason; so he had to accomplish his purpose through secret agents.
Preferable: Since the people were, for some unknown reason, opposed to him, he was compelled to accomplish his purpose through secret agents.

Inferior: I decided it was high time we camped, for it would soon be dark, so I turned the canoe toward shore.
Preferable: I decided it was high time we camped, for it would soon be dark; so [or, "accordingly"] I turned the canoe toward shore.

Two *but's* or *for's*

66. Two consecutive statements should not both be introduced by *but* or *for*. (See Rule 67.) This fault may usually be corrected by omitting the first *but* or *for*.

Bad: Iago became fond of Desdemona but she paid no attention to him but seemed to favor Cassio.
Right: Iago became fond of Desdemona. She paid no attention to him but seemed to favor Cassio.

Bad: He suddenly paused, for it seemed wonderful that he could speak so easily, for usually he was bashful.
Right: He suddenly paused; it seemed wonderful

that he could speak so easily, for usually he was bashful.

Overlapping dependence

67. Do not put a series of similar clauses or a series of similar phrases in an overlapping construction, — *i.e.*, with the second depending on the first, the third on the second, the fourth on the third, etc. Recast the sentence. (Cf. Rule 66.)

Awkward: I never knew a man who was so ready to help a friend who had got into difficulties which pressed him hard.

Right: I never knew a man so ready to help a friend who found himself hard pressed by difficulties.

Awkward: I was so uncomfortable that I rolled up my sleeves so far that my arms got sunburned, so that I could hardly sleep that night.

Right: Feeling very uncomfortable, I rolled up my sleeves so far that my arms got badly sunburned. The pain of my smarting skin kept me awake most of that night.

Awkward: This was the first of the entertainments of the senior girls of the dormitory.

Right: This was the first entertainment given by the senior girls of the dormitory.

NOTE. — A series of similar clauses or phrases all depending on the same sentence-element gives rise to no awkwardness. (See Rules 68, note, and 115.)

Right: I rise to nominate a man who has ever been stanch in his loyalty, who has long been a trusted counselor in the policies of our party, who has demonstrated his fitness for his office by the efficiency of his administration in others, whose honor has never been assailed save by calumnious envy, whose fame is destined to echo down the coming ages, who . . . etc.

Right: His face has come down to us marked with all the blemishes put on it by time, by war, by sleepless nights, by anxiety, perhaps by remorse.

68. Long, straggling sentences written without grammatical plan and covering either too many ideas or too many periods of time to make a definite impression on the reader's mind are a palpable violation of unity. Straggling sentences

Wrong: That night we camped near the outlet, and the next morning we packed our equipment and took down the tents and put them into the canoes and started down the outlet with our canoe in the lead, but we had not gone more than a few miles when we came to a fallen tree right across our way, and as the banks were soft mud it would be hard to carry around it, so we held a council of war and decided to cut through the trunk, which was not very large, so after much splashing and nearly upsetting the canoe we succeeded in disposing of the obstacle, after which we proceeded on our way. Narrative

Right: That night we camped near the outlet. The next morning, after stowing our tents and equipment in the canoes, we started down the stream, our canoe leading. After we had paddled a few miles, we came to a tree which had fallen right across our way. As the banks were soft mud, to carry around the tree would have been difficult; accordingly, holding a council of war, we decided to cut through the trunk, which was not very large. After much splashing, and nearly upsetting the canoe, we succeeded in disposing of the obstacle, and proceeded on our way.

Wrong: Tennyson's poem *Lady Clara Vere de Vere* is the speech of a young country fellow to a young lady of high birth who is beautiful but a heartless coquette, having attempted to ensnare the young man and then cast him off merely to amuse herself, as she has done with a number of other young fellows, one of whom, as the young man who is speaking reminds her, committed suicide from grief at her cruelty, which makes the young man who is speaking despise the lady, for he tells her that he cares neither for her beauty nor for her high birth, since Summary

she has no goodness of heart, and he solemnly tells her she ought to cease amusing herself by her coquetry and to "pray Heaven for a human heart."

Right: Tennyson's poem *Lady Clara Vere de Vere* is the speech of a manly young country fellow to a beautiful but heartless young lady of high birth, who has attempted to amuse herself by breaking his heart — a speech expressing disdain for charms beneath which there is no goodness of heart, and contempt for hereditary rank of which the possessor lacks true virtue and honor; reminding the lady of the suicide of another country lad, whom she had enticed by feigned affection and then cruelly repudiated; and solemnly adjuring her to cease her unworthy and injurious diversion, to turn her leisure to some good end, and to "pray Heaven for a human heart."

NOTE. — A sentence may be long without violating unity. The first of the two foregoing sentences violates unity because it is straggling, lacking grammatical plan. The second does not violate unity; it has a definite organization of which parallelism is an important factor. (See Rule 115.) This parallelism may be made clear by the following diagram:

Tennyson's poem . . . is . . . a speech
- 1. expressing
  - *a.* disdain
  - *b.* contempt
- 2. reminding
  - *a.* to cease
- 3. adjuring her
  - *b.* to turn
  - *c.* to pray

The run-on sentence

69. Do not attach the last part of a sentence to the following sentence that introduces a new thought. Either put it back into the preceding sentence or make it independent.

Bad: At the first meeting of my classes, I was very nervous. I made an absolute failure of everything I tried, and I noticed that the answers of many of my fellow freshmen were wrong.

Improved: At the first meeting of my classes, I was

so nervous that I made an absolute failure of everything I tried. I noticed that the answers of many of my fellow freshmen were wrong.

Bad: In the tree we had what we called a four-story house and on the top floor, which was rather large, we had high cloth walls. No one could see us from below and it was here that I smoked my first pipeful of tobacco.

Improved: In the tree we had what we called a four-story house and on the top floor, which was rather large, we had cloth walls so high that no one could see us from below. It was here that I smoked my first pipeful of tobacco.

Thought chopped up

70. Do not chop up the thought of one unified sentence into several short sentences. Put the thought into one sentence with proper subordination and reduced predication. (See Rule 41.)

Bad: Two friends were to meet me in a neighboring town. We were to go to my home. They were to visit with me. We were then going to college together.

Improved: Two friends, who were to meet me in a neighboring town, were to go home with me for a visit before we went to college.

Bad: My best friend in high school was our coach. His name was John Everett. He coached our football and basketball teams.

Improved: My best friend in high school was our football and basketball coach, John Everett.

Frequent use of parentheses

71. Avoid the frequent use of parentheses. The parenthetical material may be subordinated, or may be put into separate sentences, or may be omitted.

Bad: My cousin (he is the one that you met when you visited me two years ago) has just returned from the East where he saw many important football games (especially the Yale-Harvard and the Army-Navy games).

Improved: My cousin, whom you met when you visited me two years ago, has just returned from the East, where he saw the Yale-Harvard, the Army-Navy, and other important football games.

Comma fault

72. Do not run two sentences together into one by using a comma between them instead of a period. (See Rule 253.)

Wrong: He was present at all athletic contests with his word of cheer for the losers and congratulations for the winners, in this manner he made many friends.

Right: He was present at all athletic contests with his word of cheer for the losers and congratulations for the winners. In this manner he made many friends.

Wrong: When the game begins, the two teams line up much in the same manner as in a football game, the center forward of the team stands in the middle of the field on the 50-yard line, facing the goal.

Right: When the game begins, the two teams line up much in the same manner as in a football game. The center forward of the team stands in the middle of the field on the 50-yard line, facing the goal.

NOTE. — If the clauses are so related in thought that they may be put into one sentence, they should be separated by a semicolon rather than by a comma.

Subordinate elements mistaken for sentences

73. Subordinate sentence-elements should not be capitalized and punctuated like complete sentences. This error, the "period fault," is one of the most serious the writer can commit, because it breaks up a complete thought into incomplete fragments. An incomplete sentence is to be distinguished from the correct abbreviated forms of complete ideas such as are illustrated in the following cases:

1. Questions and answers to questions, especially in conversation.

Why not?
Because it is too late.

2. Exclamations.

A pretty situation!
At last!

3. Transitions.

Now for the next objection.
To consider the next point.

Writers frequently use incomplete sentences to gain emphasis or realism by reproducing the style of speech. There is a great difference between the incomplete sentence designedly used by the skilled writer and that of the illiterate who places a period in his sentence before he has completed it. Contrast these examples:

> "He began to plan what he would do with his Saturday afternoons and his Sundays. He would not go to the club for lunch on Saturday. No, cut away from the office as soon as possible and get them to give him a couple of slices of cold meat and half a lettuce when he got home."
>
> — KATHERINE MANSFIELD.

> Fishing attracts men of all professions. Whether they are farmers, lawyers, merchants, or doctors.

The inexperienced writer should not attempt incomplete sentences until he is absolutely certain that he knows the difference between a complete and an incomplete thought. Even then incomplete sentences should be used with caution; they are likely to produce a jerking, exclamatory, and artificial style that soon becomes tiresome.

In determining whether an expression is a *complete sentence*, the student cannot always rely upon his judgment, for a subordinate member may appear complete in thought. He should rely instead upon

grammatical definitions as the guide to correct punctuation. He should distinguish carefully between a *complete sentence*, a *phrase*, and a *subordinate clause*. A complete sentence contains a subject and a predicate, and is not dependent on any words outside itself. A phrase is a group of words not containing a subject and a predicate. A subordinate clause is introduced by (and usually begins with) a relative pronoun or a subordinating conjunction. The relative pronouns are *that*, *who*, *what*, *which*, *whoever*, *whatever*, and *whichever*. The principal subordinating conjunctions are *if*, *as if*, *even if*, *though*, *although*, *whether*, *lest*, *unless*, *than*, *as*, *that*, *in order that*, *so that*, *because*, *since*, *when*, *whenever*, *while*, *after*, *where*, *whereas*, *wherever*, *provided*, *provided that*, *before*, *how*, *however*, *until*. Simple conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, which do not subordinate the subjects and predicates following them, should be carefully distinguished from relative pronouns and subordinating conjunctions. (See *Conjunction* in Appendix B.)

Wrong: It offers a course for those who wish to study painting. At the same time affording opportunity for literary study. [Participial phrase lacking subject and predicate.]

Right: It offers a course for those who wish to study painting, at the same time affording opportunity for literary study.

Wrong: Among her suitors were two she favored most. One a college student, the other a capitalist. [Phrases in apposition with "suitors."]

Right: Among her suitors were two she favored most; one a college student, the other a capitalist.

Wrong: The care of oil lamps requires every day some untidy and disagreeable labor. While electric lights give the housekeeper no trouble. [Subordinate clause, marked by "while."]

Right: The care of oil lamps requires every day some untidy and disagreeable labor, while electric lights give the housekeeper no trouble.

74. Do not use a substantive and a participle for a subject and predicate. Substantives and participles for sentences

Wrong: The weather being pleasant today.

Right: The weather is pleasant today.

Coherence

75. Coherence requires that the parts of a sentence be so worded and arranged that they will stick together. General principle

Reference

76. Do not use a pronoun instead of a noun if there can be doubt even for a moment about its antecedent. Uncertain or ludicrous reference This fault may sometimes be avoided by repeating the antecedent or using an equivalent noun; recasting may be advisable.

Uncertain: Geraint followed the knight to a town, where he entered a castle.

Clear: Geraint followed the knight to a town and there saw him enter a castle.

Uncertain: He told his father he would soon get a letter.

Clear: He said to his father, "You will [or I shall] soon get a letter."

Not immediately evident: The ghost of his old partner appeared to Scrooge. He told him he must reform.

Clear: The ghost of his partner appeared to Scrooge and admonished him to reform.

Ludicrous: Whistling for Rover, my cousin put a pail in his mouth and we started.

Clear: Whistling for Rover, my cousin put a pail in the dog's mouth, and we started.

Note. — Do not use a plural pronoun referring to a singular noun preceding; make the pronoun singular or repeat the noun in the plural.

Wrong: The incubator is a modern device for hatching chickens. All poultrymen who do business on a large scale use them.

Right: The incubator is a modern device for hatching chickens. All poultrymen who do business on a large scale use it; [or] . . . use incubators.

Weak reference of *this* and *that*

77. The pronouns *this* and *that* are peculiarly liable to misuse with what may be called weak reference. In case of such use, the fault may often be corrected by changing the pronoun to a demonstrative adjective and inserting a noun after it. Thus:

Weak reference: He asked where Cary was. I could not answer that.

Right: He asked where Cary was. I could not answer that question.

Weak reference: We do oppose the bill; if we did not, we should not publish this.

Right: We do oppose the bill; if we did not, we should not publish this article.

Remote reference

78. Do not use a pronoun to refer to a noun that is widely separated from it; repeat the noun.

Reference to a noun not prominent

79. Avoid reference of a pronoun to a noun decidedly subordinate in thought or syntax. Repeat the noun or recast the sentence. Some more prominent noun is likely to be mistaken for the antecedent.

Bad: Mrs. Bloodgood will appear at Powers's Theatre in Fitch's play, *The Girl with the Green Eyes.* This piece was written by *him* especially for Mrs. Bloodgood.

Right: Mrs. Bloodgood will appear at Powers's Theatre in Fitch's play, *The Girl with the Green Eyes.* This piece was written by Mr. Fitch especially for Mrs. Bloodgood.

Bad: In Miss Howerth's story of her life she relates this incident.

Right: Miss Howerth in the story of her life relates this incident.

Allowable: Tom's happiness was a joy to see; he literally danced on the pavement. ["Tom" is subordinate in syntax but not in thought.]

Reference to a word not expressed

80. Do not use a pronoun, or a pronominal expression, seeming to refer to a word or phrase that has not been expressed.

Bad: The cadet must keep his hands out of his pockets; *that* would be very unsoldierly.

Right: The cadet must keep his hands out of his pockets; to put them there would be very unsoldierly.

Bad: Marx is a violinist, the study of *which instrument* he began when a boy.

Right: Marx is a violinist. He began the study of the violin when he was a boy.

Bad: Mink-skins are valuable, because *these animals* are now scarce.

Right: Mink-skins are valuable, because minks are now scarce.

Reference to a whole statement

81. The relative pronoun *which* should not be used referring to a whole statement if that statement contains nouns to which the pronoun may be erroneously referred. Use a dash and put a noun (*fact, act, operation*, etc.) before the *which;* or recast.

Ambiguous: He did not hear her cry which was due to his deafness.

Right: He did not hear her cry — a fact which was due to his deafness.

Ambiguous: Unless you steer carefully, the boat may crash into the wharf, which may result in serious damage to the hull.

Right: Unless you steer carefully, the boat may crash into the wharf, seriously damaging the hull.

Right: Unless you steer carefully you may run the boat into the wharf and seriously damage the hull.

Antecedent in parentheses

82. Do not use a pronoun followed by its antecedent in parentheses; use the antecedent alone or recast the sentence.

Awkward: If Davis treated Dixon discourteously, there is no objection to his (Dixon's) decision.

Right: If Davis treated Dixon discourteously, there is no objection to Dixon's decision; [or] Dixon is not to be blamed for his decision if he was treated discourteously by Davis.

Indefinite *you*

83. Avoid the indefinite use of *you* in formal composition. The fault may be corrected by using either the passive voice or the pronoun *one*, or by substituting the noun or pronoun which is really intended. (For the fault of shifting from *you* to *one* and to *we*, see Rule 187.)

Vague: You should not use *they* indefinitely.

Definite: *They* should not be used indefinitely; [or] One should not use *they* indefinitely.

Indefinite *they*

84. Avoid using *they* indefinitely; use the passive voice, or recast the sentence otherwise.

Wrong: They make bricks in Fostoria.

Right: Bricks are made in Fostoria.

Wrong: They had a collision on the electric road.

Right: There was a collision; [or] A collision occurred (more formal).

Wrong: They don't have redbirds in Wisconsin.

Right: There are no redbirds in Wisconsin; [or] Redbirds are not found in Wisconsin (more formal).

Indefinite *it*

85. Except in impersonal expressions, such as *it rains, it seems, it is cold*, do not use *it* without antecedent; recast the sentence.

Wrong: In the notice on the bulletin board it says the drill is held at four.

Right: The notice on the bulletin board says the drill is held at four.

Wrong: In Garland's *Life Among the Corn Rows* it gives a description of life among the farmers.

Right: Garland's *Life Among the Corn Rows* gives a description; [or] In Garland's *Life Among the Corn Rows* there is a description.

Wrong: Does it say "Fair Oaks" on that car?

Right: Is that car marked "Fair Oaks"?

NOTE. — The habit of beginning sentences with *it is* or *it seems*, even when these expressions are grammatically correct, makes a weak style and often leads to confusion of pronouns. (See Rule 76.)

Indefinite *it* and definite *it* in the same sentence

86. Avoid the confusion of having in the same sentence both an indefinite *it* and an *it* with an antecedent.

Bad: Radium gives out heat enough in an hour to raise its own weight of water from the freezing to the boiling point; yet it wastes away so slowly that it has been estimated that it would require fifteen hundred years for it to lose half its weight.

Improved: Radium gives out heat enough in an hour to raise its own weight of water from the freezing to the boiling point; yet it wastes away so slowly that, according to estimates, in fifteen hundred years it would lose only half its weight.

Indefinite *that* and *those*

87. The use of a demonstrative adjective (especially *that* or *those*) without the relative clause needed to make clear what is meant is a colloquialism. (For the misuse of the pronoun involving weak reference, see Rule 79.)

Wrong: I observed that the building was one of those rambling old mansions.

Right: I observed that the building was a rambling old mansion; [or] . . . one of those rambling old mansions that one often sees in New England towns.

Dangling Modifiers

Dangling modifiers

88. A participial phrase, a gerund phrase, an infinitive phrase, or an elliptical clause is correctly

used only (1) when the noun or pronoun that it logically modifies is expressed in the sentence containing one of these constructions, and (2) when this phrase or clause is placed so near the proper noun or pronoun that the reader immediately associates it with the noun or pronoun. Almost always these constructions should modify the subject of the main clause. Violations of the foregoing rule may be corrected (a) by changing the dangling construction to a complete clause with subject and predicate both expressed, or (b) by supplying the noun or pronoun that the construction logically modifies (the noun or pronoun should usually be made the subject of the main clause), or (c) by placing the construction so near the noun or pronoun that there can be no confusion.

Dangling participial phrases

(*a*) **Dangling participial phrases —**

Wrong: Having come of age, I took my son into partnership with me.

Right: When my son came of age, I took him into partnership; [or] Having come of age, my son entered into partnership with me.

Wrong: There we landed, and having eaten our lunch, the steamboat departed.

Right: There we landed, and after we had eaten our lunch, the steamboat departed; [or] There we landed, and having eaten our lunch, we saw the steamboat depart.

Wrong: Coming around the curve in the road, the schoolhouse was seen.

Right: As we came around the curve in the road, we saw the schoolhouse; [or] Coming around the curve in the road, we saw the schoolhouse.

Ambiguous: He identified himself with the church, every day becoming more and more useful in the community.

Clear: He identified himself with the church, which

every day became more and more useful in the community; [or] Identifying himself with the church, he every day became more and more useful in the community.

Participial phrase of result (*thus* or *thereby*)

NOTE. — Do not end a sentence with a participial phrase of result which is not related to any noun preceding. Such phrases frequently begin with *thus* or *thereby*. The error may be corrected by changing the participial phrase to an independent clause or to a subordinate clause.

Wrong: He was well acquainted with the best literature, thus helping him to become an able critic.

Right: He was well acquainted with the best literature; this helped him to become an able critic; [or, so that he was helped.]

Wrong: He has to stand still until the rod man comes up, thus giving him no chance to move about and keep warm.

Right: He has to stand still until the rod man comes up; thus he has no chance to move about and keep warm; [or, so that he has no chance.]

Wrong: The little ship was very light, causing it to ride the waves easily.

Right: The little ship was very light; thus it rode the waves easily; [or, so that it rode the waves easily.]

Dangling gerund phrases

(*b*) **Dangling gerund phrases** —

Wrong: In talking to Smith the other day, he told me about the race.

Right: As I was talking to Smith the other day, he told me about the race; [or] In talking to Smith the other day, I learned about the race.

Wrong: After pointing out my errors, I was dismissed.

Right: When he had pointed out my errors, I was dismissed; [or] After pointing out my errors, he dismissed me.

Wrong: After flunking three times, the professor reproved me.

Right: When I had flunked three times, the professor reproved me; [or] After flunking three times, I was reproved by the professor.

Wrong: After singing hymn 523, Mr. Barnes will lead in prayer.

Right: After we have sung hymn 523, Mr. Barnes will lead in prayer; [or] After singing hymn 523, we shall be led in prayer by Mr. Barnes.

Right: He assumed a curious pose unusual for him in speaking; [or] In speaking, he assumed a curious pose unusual for him. (Note how the meaning of the sentence is changed when the position of the gerund phrase is changed.)

Dangling infinitive phrases

(*c*) **Dangling infinitive phrases** —

Wrong: To enjoy a walking trip, the feet should be in good condition.

Right: To enjoy a walking trip, take care that your feet are in good condition.

Wrong: To appreciate pictures, they should be studied.

Right: To appreciate pictures, study them; [or] If pictures are to be appreciated, they should be studied.

Right: She must be sure to give the date; [or] To give the date she must be sure. (Note how the meaning of the sentence is changed when the position of the gerund phrase is changed.)

Dangling elliptical clauses

(*d*) **Dangling elliptical clauses.** (An elliptical clause is a clause from which the subject and predicate are omitted; e.g., *while going* for *while I was going*, *when a boy* for *when he was a boy*.)

Wrong: When six years old, my grandfather died.

Right: When I was six years old, my grandfather died.

Wrong: You should not cut the cake until thoroughly cooked.

Right: You should not cut the cake until it is thoroughly cooked.

Elliptical clauses in titles

NOTE. — Rule 88 forbids such titles as *An Accident while Hunting*, *Things Learned while Canvassing*. Write rather *An Accident in a Bear Hunt*, *Things Learned by a Canvasser*.

Allowable dangling modifiers

89. An exception to Rule 88 may be made in the case of participial gerund, or infinitive construction which designates general action, not the action of any specific doer or receiver of the action.

Right: Generally speaking, he is a careful workman.

Right: Taking everything into consideration, the decision was a fair one.

Right: In swimming, the head should not be lifted too high.

Due to, owing to, caused by

90. Do not make dangling modifiers of *due to*, *owing to*, and *caused by*. They are adjective expressions and should be used with nouns that they can logically modify. Faulty sentences may be corrected either (a) by using *on account of* or *because of*, or similar adverbial expressions, or (b) by supplying a noun for the adjective expression to modify.

Wrong: The forces were divided, due to a misunderstanding.

Right: The forces were divided through [or because of] a misunderstanding; [or] The division of the forces was due to a misunderstanding.

Wrong: He was deaf, caused by an early attack of scarlet fever.

Right: He was deaf as the result of an early attack of scarlet fever; [or] His deafness was caused by an early attack of scarlet fever.

Order of Members

Position of modifiers: General rule

91. Every modifier should be so placed that the reader connects it immediately with the member it modifies, and not with some other member. A phrase or clause that modifies the main clause may very often be placed with advantage at the beginning of the sentence.

Bad: The storm broke just as we reached the shore with great violence.

Right: Just as we reached the shore, the storm broke with great violence.

Bad: The ball is thrown home by a player stationed in the middle of the square called the pitcher.

Right: The ball is thrown home by a player called the pitcher, who is stationed in the middle of the square.

Position of the adverbs *only*, *almost*, etc.

92. As a rule, place the adverbs *only, merely, just, almost, ever, hardly, scarcely, quite, nearly,* next to the words they modify, not elsewhere. If they are to modify only a part of the predicate, place them before that part.

Colloquial: I only want three.
Better: I want only three; [or] I want three only.

Colloquial: Do you ever expect to go again?
Better: Do you expect ever to go again?

Wrong: It is the handsomest vase I almost ever saw.
Right: It is almost the handsomest vase I ever saw.

Wrong: I never remember having met him. [Here "ever" is misplaced and made to modify the wrong word, for *never* = *not ever*.]

Misplaced clauses

93. A modifying clause should not be so placed that a verb following it may, in reading, be erroneously joined with the verb of the clause instead of with the verb preceding the clause. Observe that in some instances the difficulty is remedied by placing the time modifier first.

Ill arranged: I walked out into the night as the moon rose and wandered through the grounds.

Clear: As the moon rose, I walked out into the night and wandered through the grounds.

Ill arranged: He sprang to the platform on which the dead man lay and shouted.

Clear: Springing to the platform on which the dead man lay, he shouted.

Bad: A terrible wind and thunder storm visited the

Fourth Regiment camp Thursday night, shortly after taps were sounded, playing havoc on all sides.

Right: On Thursday night, shortly after taps was sounded, a violent wind and thunder storm visited the Fourth Regiment camp, playing havoc on all sides.

Position of relative clauses

94. As a rule, arrange a sentence containing a relative clause so that the clause immediately follows its antecedent.

Awkward: I had many pleasant experiences while I was there, some of which I shall always remember.

Better: While I was there, I had many pleasant experiences, some of which I shall always remember.

Awkward: The correspondence began just one month later which led to the surrender.

Better: Just one month later began the correspondence which led to the surrender.

Note. — It may happen that a sentence containing a relative clause cannot be arranged according to the foregoing rule. In such a case it is often necessary, for clearness, to use two separate sentences or two coördinate clauses.

Bad: The police are looking today for the persons last in company with Clara Belinfant, the daughter of Abraham Belinfant, a rich New York merchant, who has been missing since July 18.

Right: The police are looking today for the persons last seen in company with Clara Belinfant, the daughter of Abraham Belinfant, a rich New York merchant. The girl has been missing since July 18.

Squinting modifiers

95. Do not place between two members of a sentence a modifier applicable to either member. Do not trust to punctuation to show the application of the modifier; recast the sentence.

Defective: The person who steals in nine cases out of ten is driven to it by want.

Right: In nine cases out of ten, the person who steals is driven to it by want.

Defective: Since a canoe cannot stand hard knocks when not in use it should be kept out of the water.

Right: Since a canoe cannot stand hard knocks, it should be kept out of the water when not in use.

Defective: The coroner's jury which has been investigating the death of the girl today brought in a verdict of suicide.

Right: The coroner's jury which has been investigating the death of the girl brought in today a verdict of suicide.

Separation of coördinate modifiers

96. Two phrases or clauses modifying the same sentence-element and of parallel form and function should not be placed one before and one after that element; they should be put together.

Awkward: When he has once made up his mind, you may be sure he will never draw back when he has got fully started.

Right: When he has once made up his mind and got fully started, you may be sure he will never draw back.

Split infinitives

97. Do not put an adverb or a phrase between an infinitive and its sign *to*.

Inelegant: I went there in order to personally inspect it.

Right: I went there in order to inspect it personally.

Inelegant: It is impossible to in any way remove them.

Right: It is impossible in any way to remove them.

Right: It is impossible to remove them in any way.

NOTE. — Though the split infinitive is usually to be avoided, it can be justified when used to avoid awkwardness or loss of clearness.

Smooth order

98. The members of a sentence should be arranged to read smoothly, unless this arrangement impairs clearness.

Awkward: He, instead of acting as my guide, followed

me. [Awkwardness caused by needless separation between subject and verb, throwing false emphasis on "he."]

Right: Instead of acting as my guide, he followed me.

Awkward: Fishing was not good, and they, becoming impatient, decided to quit.

Right: Fishing was not good, and becoming impatient they decided to quit.

Preposition separated from its object

NOTE. — This principle is violated by interposing a number of words between a preposition and its object, so that an awkward pause occurs after the preposition.

Awkward: He submitted to, though he did not fully approve of, the rules.

Better: He submitted to the rules, though he did not fully approve of them.

Such a construction may be used, for the sake of brevity, in statutes, contracts, and the like, in which smoothness of style is of little consequence.

"The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory . . . belonging to the United States."
— *The Federal Constitution.*

Except in such a context, the harshness of the construction more than offsets the gain in compactness.

Illogical Construction

Sentence-elements omitted

99. Do not omit a word, phrase, or clause essential to a clear understanding of the structure and meaning of the sentence.

Bad: The resonator responds in a manner analogous to that *which* one tuning fork responds to another.

Right: The resonator responds in a manner analogous to that *in which* one tuning fork responds to another.

Wrong: There were some people whom I could not tell whether they were English or American. ["Whom" has no construction.]

Right: There were some people about whom I could not tell whether they were English or American.

Confused structure

100. Make the grammatical construction consistent throughout each sentence.

Bad: That's all I want, is a chance to test it thoroughly. ["Is" has no subject.]

Right: That's all I want — a chance to test it thoroughly [see Rule 264 *d*]; [or] All I want is a chance to test it thoroughly.

Sentences or sentence-elements left uncompleted

101. Do not leave a grammatical construction unfinished.

Bad: The fact that I had never before studied at home, I was at a loss what to do with vacant periods. [The noun "fact" with its appositive modifier "that . . . home" is left without any construction.]

Right: The fact that I had never before studied at home made me feel at a loss as to what to do with vacant periods.

Bad: The story tells how a young German, who, having settled in Dakota, returns to Wisconsin and there marries an old schoolmate. [The clause beginning "how a young German" is left unfinished; "German" (modified by the clause "who . . . schoolmate") has no construction.]

Right: The story tells how a young German, having settled in Dakota, returns to Wisconsin and marries an old schoolmate.

Wrong: Any man who could accomplish that task, the whole world would think he was a hero. ["Man," with its modifier "who . . . task," is left without any construction.]

Right: Any man who could accomplish that task the whole world would regard as a hero.

Sentence as subject or predicate complement

102. Do not use a sentence (except a quoted sentence) as the subject of *is* or *was*.

Bad: I was detained by business is the reason I am late.

Right: I was detained by business; that is the reason I am late.

A similar fault is the use of a sentence (except a quoted sentence) as a predicate substantive after *is* or *was*. This fault may be corrected by changing the substantive clause.

Bad: The difference between them is De Quincey is humorous and Macaulay is grave.
Right: The difference between them is that De Quincey is humorous and Macaulay is grave.

When or *where* clause for predicate noun

103. Do not use a *when* or *where* clause in place of a predicate noun; use a noun with modifiers. This error is likely to occur in definitions. (See also Rule 105.)

Bad: Cribbing is where you copy somebody's answer in an examination.
Right: One form of cribbing is copying somebody's answer in an examination.

Bad: Intoxication is when the brain is affected by the action of certain drugs.
Right: Intoxication is a state of the brain, caused by the action of certain drugs.

Because clause as a noun clause

104. Do not use a *because* clause as a noun clause. It is correctly used as an adverbial clause. (See *Cause* and *Reason* in Appendix A.)

Wrong: The reason why I failed was because I had not studied my lesson.
Right: The reason why I failed was that I had not studied my lesson.

Wrong: Because I did not write to her was no reason for her being angry with me.
Right: The fact that I did not write to her was no reason for her being angry with me; [or] Because I did not write to her, she had no reason for being angry with me.

Logical agreement of sentence-members

105. Every sentence-element should be in logical accord with the rest of the sentence. (See Rules 102

and 103; also *Subject*, *Cause*, and *Reason* in the Glossary.)

Bad: Of these names sixteen were chosen to be members. ["Sixteen (names)" does not agree logically with "were chosen to be members."]

Right: Of the persons named, sixteen were chosen to be members.

Bad: The life of a hod-carrier is sometimes happier than a prince. ["The life" does not agree logically with "is happier than a prince."]

Right: The life of a hod-carrier is sometimes happier than that of a prince.

Illogical: He hated to submit to the rules — *viz.*, church attendance and not smoking. [Church attendance and abstinence from tobacco are not rules.]

Right: He hated to submit to the rules — namely, those requiring attendance at church and abstinence from smoking.

Illogical: A fireman seldom rises above an engineer.

Right: A fireman seldom rises above the position of engineer.

Illogical: The comedy *Love's Labour's Lost*, written by Shakespeare, is supposed to have occurred in Navarre.

Right: The events related in Shakespeare's comedy *Love's Labour's Lost* are supposed to have occurred in Navarre.

Illogical: Nothing looks more untidy than to see an expensive motor coming out of the garage covered with mud.

Right: Nothing looks more untidy than an expensive motor covered with mud coming out of the garage.

Illogical: As a question of economy, it is advantageous to use water power.

Right: For the sake of economy, it is advantageous to use water power.

Illogical: He had to choose between signing away his inheritance or being hanged.

Right: He had to choose between signing away his inheritance and being hanged.

Illogical: There is no place to hang it only in the hall.
Right: There is no place to hang it except in the hall; [or] The hall is the only place to hang it.

Illogical: I sat on the opposite side from which Charlie was sitting.
Right: I sat opposite Charlie; [or] I sat on the side opposite to the one on which Charlie was sitting.

NOTE. — The subject and the predicate verb must be consistent with each other. Inconsistency often occurs in the use of compound predicates. Be sure that the last predicate is consistent with the subject.

Wrong: Coffee seeds are selected from the coffee plants with desirable characteristics, are then planted in a nursery or in a field where the mature plants are to grow, and come into bearing in their second or third year.
Improved: Coffee seeds are selected from the coffee plants with desirable characteristics, and are then planted in a nursery or in a field where the mature plants are to grow. The plants come into bearing in their second or third year.

Quotation coherent part of a sentence

106. When a part of a quoted sentence is incorporated into another sentence, it must be a coherent part of that sentence.

Wrong: Jane Austen pictures Elizabeth Bennet as intelligent, frank, independent, impulsive, and "more quickness of observation and less pliancy of temper than her sister."
Right: Jane Austen pictures Elizabeth Bennet as intelligent, frank, independent, impulsive, with "more quickness of observation and less pliancy of temper than her sister."

Other or *else* in a *than* or *as* clause

107. When comparing a thing to other members of its own class, exclude from the group the thing compared.

Illogical: Lead is heavier than any metal.
Right: Lead is heavier than any other metal.

Illogical: Shakespeare is greater than any English poet.
Right: Shakespeare is greater than any other English poet.

When incorrect

108. When comparing a thing to the members of a class to which it does not belong, in the *than* or an *as* clause, do not restrict the standard of comparison by *other* or *else* or any equivalent word.

Illogical: That little word *home* means more to me than any other word of twice its length.
Right: That little word *home* means more to me than any word of twice its length.

The *of* phrase limiting a superlative

109. In the *of* phrase limiting an adjective or an adverb in the superlative degree —

(*a*) **The object of *of* should be a plural noun or a collective noun, not a noun designating an individual person or thing.**

Illogical: He is the tallest of any man in the regiment.
Right: He is the tallest of all the men in the regiment; [or] He is the tallest man of the regiment.
(Right: He is taller than any other man in the regiment.)

(*b*) **The object of *of* should designate a class to which the subject of comparison belongs, not a class to which it does not belong.**

Illogical: Blackbirds make the best pie of all birds.
Right: Blackbirds make the best pie of all game pies.
(Right: Blackbirds make better pie than any other birds.)

(*c*) **The object of *of* should not be restricted by *other* or *else* or any equivalent word.**

Illogical: Shakespeare is the greatest of all other English poets.

Right: Shakespeare is the greatest of all English poets.

Incorrect Omissions

Words used in a double capacity

110. Avoid the incorrect use of words in a double capacity. A word or a combination of words may often be correctly used in a double capacity if it is perfectly fitted for both the offices it serves. For example, in the sentence, " I can do it as well as you," " can do it " serves as the predicate of both " I " and " you," and does so correctly, since it agrees grammatically with both pronouns. But there are various ways of using words in a double capacity that are incorrect; these are indicated in the following rules:

Auxiliaries and copulas in a double capacity

(*a*) **Do not supply an auxiliary verb or a copula from one part of a sentence to another if the same form is not grammatically proper in both parts; write the proper form with each part.**

Wrong: The fire was built and the potatoes baked.
Right: The fire was built and the potatoes were baked.

Wrong: He was a patriot, but all the rest traitors.
Right: He was a patriot, but all the rest were traitors.

Note. — The supplying of an auxiliary from one clause to another is likely in most cases to produce an awkward sentence, even when there is no violation of the foregoing principle. As a rule, repeat an auxiliary rather than supply it.

Awkward: Light was seen through the opening, and the voice of my rescuer heard.
Better: Light was seen through the opening, and the voice of my rescuer was heard. [See Rule 242 *g*.]

Be as both principal and auxiliary

(*b*) **Do not make a single form of the verb *be* serve both as a principal and as an auxiliary verb.**

Wrong: At first the drill was interesting and liked by most of the men.

Right: At first the drill was interesting and was liked by most of the men.

Principal verbs in a double capacity

(*c*) **Do not supply a principal verb from one part of a sentence to another if the same form is not grammatically proper in both parts; write the proper form for each part.**

Wrong: He did what many others have and are doing.
Right: He did what many others have done and are doing.

Wrong: We ate such a dinner as only laborers can.
Right: We ate such a dinner as only laborers can eat.

Than or *as* clause in a double capacity

(*d*) **Two expressions of comparison, the one an adjective preceded by *as*, the other an adjective in the comparative degree, should not both be completed by a single *as* clause or a single *than* clause, unless that clause immediately follows the expression of comparison that stands first in the sentence.**

Wrong: Fostoria is as large, if not larger, than Delaware.
Right: Fostoria is as large as Delaware, if not larger.

Wrong: He is bigger and fully as strong as Buck.
Right: He is bigger than Buck and fully as strong.

Other modifiers in a double capacity

(*e*) **Aside from the two cases given under *d*, above, two sentence-elements should never be limited by a single modifying phrase or clause unless that modifier is idiomatically adapted to both.** (See Rule 23 *b*.)

A noun in a double capacity

(*f*) **Two incomplete members of a sentence, the one requiring to complete it a singular noun, the other requiring a plural noun, should not both be completed by one noun, unless that noun immediately follows the incomplete member that stands first in the sentence.**

Wrong: One of the greatest, if not the greatest, generals of America.
Right: One of the greatest generals of America, if not the greatest.

(*g*) **When *as to*, *in regard to*, or *in respect to* is used as a single preposition to govern a clause, the *to* should not be made to govern a substantive within the clause.** *To* (in *as to*, *in regard to*, etc.) used in a double capacity

Wrong: A dispute arose *as to* [= *concerning*] whom the honor should belong.
Right (awkward): A dispute arose *as to* [= *concerning*] whom the honor should belong to.
Preferable: A dispute arose *as to* [= *concerning*] who should receive the honor. (See Rule 210 *b*.)

111. Do not omit the subordinating conjunction *that* at the beginning of a substantive clause which follows a verb of *saying*, *thinking*, *feeling*, etc., when to do so causes awkwardness. Awkward omission of *that*

Bad: Silas Marner was brought back to church interests because he felt to do the right thing by Eppie he must have her christened.
Right: Silas Marner was brought back to church interests because he felt *that* to do the right thing by Eppie he must have her christened.

Note. — For the faulty omission of *that* after *so*, see Appendix A. *That* after *so*

112. As a rule, repeat an article or a possessive adjective before each noun in a series, unless all the nouns designate the same thing. Omission of articles and possessives

Wrong: Near by are a grocery, drug store, barber shop, and garage.
Right: Near by are a grocery store, a drug store, a barber shop, and a garage.

Wrong: She watched her grandmother, aunt, and mother sewing.
Right: She watched her grandmother, her aunt, and her mother sewing.

Wrong: I asked what were the names of her puppies and kitten.
Right: I asked what were the names of her puppies and her kitten.

Right: For that summer I was day clerk, night clerk, bell boy, and porter, all in one.

Omission of prepositions

113. In certain instances, a noun used to indicate the time, place, or manner of an occurrence should be accompanied by a preposition. Some uses of the noun without the preposition are distinctly wrong; some others are better suited to informal composition than to formal composition.

Wrong: Friendships made that way will never last.
Right: Friendships made in that way will never last.

Wrong: He is living some place in Arizona.
Right: He is living in some place in Arizona. [Observe that ordinarily the writer who uses the incorrect expressions *any place*, *some place*, etc., means to use the adverbs *anywhere*, *somewhere*, etc., See Appendix A.]

Wrong: You may sit any place you wish.
Right: You may sit in any place you wish.

Informal (not incorrect): The armistice was signed the eleventh of November.
More formal: The armistice was signed on the eleventh of November.

Right: Last year, last month, last night, last Saturday, next year, next day, next Tuesday, some day, one day, any day, that day, this day, this afternoon.

NOTE. — The expression "He is home" is bad idiom when used to mean location in a place: as, " Where is your sister this afternoon?" "She is home"; [should be, "at home"]. It is good idiom when used to mean arrival at a place; as, "He is safe home at last."

"Home is the sailor, home from sea,
And the hunter home from the hill." — STEVENSON.

A fault similar to those noted under this head is the omission of the article from the phrases *all the morning, all the afternoon, all the week, all the evening,* etc. *All day* and *all night* are established idioms.

Omission of standard of comparison

114. Do not make comparisons leaving the standard of comparison not indicated or only vaguely implied; let the standard be definitely stated or implied.

Incomplete: Manufacturers have come to see the greater economy of the electric motor.

Right: Manufacturers have come to see the greater economy of the electric motor as compared to steam power.

NOTE. — When *such* and *so* are used for *very* — as, "We had such a good time"; "I am so tired," — a comparison is vaguely implied. (See Appendix A.)

Parallelism

Parallel forms for analogous elements

115. As a rule, two or more sentence-elements that have the same logical office should be made grammatically parallel; *i.e.*, if one is an infinitive, the other should be; if one is a relative clause, the other should be; if one is an appositive, the other should be; and so on.

Bad: The crowd began to wave handkerchiefs and shouting good-byes. [“To wave” and “shouting,” both objects of “began,” are awkwardly dissimilar in form.]

Right: (a) The crowd began to wave handkerchiefs and to shout good-byes; [or] The crowd began waving handkerchiefs and shouting good-byes. [The two objects of “began” are made parallel; in (*a*) they are both infinitives, in (*b*) they are both gerunds.]

Bad: I met many people there whom I had seen before but did not know their names. [“Whom I had seen before” and “did not know their names,”

both qualifiers (logically) of "people," are awkwardly dissimilar in form.]

Right: I met many people there whom I have seen before but whose names I did not know. [The two qualifiers of "people" are made parallel; both are relative clauses.]

Bad: I delight in a good novel — one which portrays strong characters and in reading the book you are thrilled. [The two qualifiers of "one" are awkwardly dissimilar; the first ("which portrays strong characters") is a relative clause, the second ("in reading the book you are thrilled") a sentence.]

Right: I delight in a good novel — one which portrays strong characters and which thrills the reader. [The two qualifiers are made parallel; both are relative clauses.]

Bad: Two courses are open to us: first, to have the missionary society transfer to us a missionary now in the field; second, one of our own members has volunteered to go, and we may send him. [The two logical appositives to "two courses" are awkwardly dissimilar; the first ("to have . . . field") is a grammatical appositive, the second ("one of our own members . . . him") a sentence.]

Right: Two courses are open to us: first, to have the missionary society transfer to us a missionary now in the field; second, to send one of our own members, who has volunteered to go. [The two logical appositives are made parallel; both are grammatical appositives to "courses."] [or] Two courses are open to us. First, we may have the missionary society transfer to us a missionary now in the field; second, we may send one of our members, who has volunteered to go. [The two logical appositives are made parallel; both are sentences.]

Bad: I have lived in many states, some for only a short time, while in others I have lived a year or more. [The two qualifiers of the main clause are awkwardly dissimilar; the first ("some for only a short time") is an incomplete modifier of "lived,"

the second ("while . . . more") a complete subordinate clause.]

Right: I have lived in many states, — in some for only a short time, in others for a year or more. [The two qualifiers of the main clause are made parallel; both are prepositional phrases modifying "lived."]

Bad: I was asked to contribute to the church, Christian Association, and to the athletic fund. [The three modifiers of "contribute" are awkwardly dissimilar in form; the first is a complete phrase, the second a noun with both the preposition and the article lacking, the third a complete phrase.]

Right: I was asked to contribute to the church, to the Christian Association, and to the athletic fund. [The three modifiers of "contribute" are made parallel in form; each is a complete phrase.] [or] I was asked to contribute to the church, the Christian Association, and the athletic fund. ["To" is made to govern three objects parallel in form, — each consisting of "the" and a noun.]

Clearness of coördination

General principle

116. For the sake of clearness, coördinate sentence-members that are long or complex should be introduced in a similar or identical manner. Otherwise the reader may associate the wrong members.

Obscure coördination: Then I learned how he had run away from his father, a gypsy vagabond who professed to be a horse-trader and was in reality a thief, dressed in some clothes that he found on a scarecrow in a cornfield, learned the way to my home through the map in an old railway time-table, and come all the way on foot. [This sentence is well constructed; its defect is that the relation between the coördinate members is not shown by similar beginnings.]

Clear coördination: Then I learned how he had run away from his father, a gypsy vagabond who professed to be a horse-trader and was in reality a thief; how he had dressed in some clothes that he found

on a scarecrow in a cornfield; how he had learned the way to my home through the map in an old railway time-table, and had come all the way on foot.

The foregoing principle has many different applications. The four following are worthy of special mention:

Repetition of subordinating conjunctions

117. A subordinating conjunction introducing several coördinate assertions should be repeated with each assertion after the first, if the coördination of those assertions would otherwise not be immediately clear. This is especially important with clauses in indirect discourse introduced by *that*.

Obscure coördination: The registrar told him that he could not have credit for his half year of German and he must be put on probation because of his poor grades in English.

Clear coördination: The registrar told him *that* he could not have credit for his half year of German and *that* he must be put on probation because of his poor grades in English.

Obscure coördination: When they saw the excellent structure which, though handicapped by the strike and the difficulty of getting materials, he had yet completed in less than the required time, and considered how valuable such a man would be to them, they gave him a permanent position.

Clear coördination: When they saw the excellent structure which, though handicapped by the strike and the difficulty of getting materials, he had yet completed in less than the required time, and when they considered how valuable such a man would be to them, they gave him a permanent position.

NOTE. — When the coördinate assertions are very short, repetition of the conjunction is usually not necessary; *e.g.:*

Right: He seems to be pretty well, though he takes no exercise and neglects his diet.

It is only when the assertions are complex that repetition of the conjunction is necessary.

Repetition of auxiliary verbs

118. An auxiliary verb introducing several principal verbs should be repeated with each if the coördination would otherwise not be immediately clear.

Obscure coördination: The captain must be quick to see just what movement will get his company out of close quarters and give the order clearly.

Clear coördination: The captain *must be quick* to see just what movement will get his company out of close quarters and *must give* the order clearly.

NOTE. — When the verbs stand close together, repetition is usually unnecessary; *e.g.:*

Right: You must line up quickly and march downstairs.

Right: The sheep may stray and be lost.

But when other verbs intervene between the coördinate verbs, clearness usually demands repetition of the auxiliary.

Repetition of prepositions

119. A preposition governing several objects should be repeated with each object after the first, when the construction of those objects would otherwise not be immediately clear.

A. Not immediately clear: The place is often visited by tourists who are fond of rugged scenery, and especially amateur photographers.

Right: The place is often visited *by* tourists who are fond of rugged scenery, and especially *by* amateur photographers.

B. Not immediately clear: With the refusal of Mr. Goggins to accept the office left vacant by the resignation of Mr. Barnes and the presence of Governor Davidson in the city, the friends of Mr. Roemer were kept busy yesterday.

Clear: *With* the refusal of Mr. Goggins to accept the office left vacant by the resignation of Mr. Barnes, and *with* the presence of Governor Davidson in the

city, the friends of Mr. Roemer were kept busy yesterday.

NOTE. — When the objects stand close together, repetition is usually unnecessary; *e.g.:*

Right: He had lived in Cuba, Panama, and Barbadoes.

Right: It was exposed to the wind, the rain, and the scorching sun.

But when the objects are separated by intervening modifiers, as in sentences *A* and *B*, clearness usually requires that the preposition be repeated.

Repetition of the infinitive-sign

120. An infinitive-sign (*to*) introducing several coördinate infinitives should be repeated with each infinitive after the first, when the construction of those infinitives would otherwise not be immediately clear.

A. Not immediately clear: Here nature had done her best to enchant those that can see and feel, and make them her lifelong worshipers.

Right: Here nature has done her best *to enchant* those that can see and feel, and *to make* them her lifelong worshipers.

NOTE. — When the infinitives stand close together, repetition of the *to* is usually not necessary; *e.g.:*

Right: Has he learned to dance, converse, and make himself agreeable?

But when the infinitives are separated by intervening adjuncts, as in sentence *A* above, repetition of the *to* is usually necessary to clearness.

Correlatives

121. Correlative conjunctions should be followed by coördinate sentence-elements; if a predicate follows the first, a predicate should follow the second; if a modifier the first, a modifier the second; and so on.

Wrong: They would neither speak to him nor would they look at him. ["Neither" is followed by "speak," a part of a compound verb; "nor" by

"would they look," a subject and complete predicate.]

Right: They would neither speak to him nor look at him. ["Neither" and "nor" are each followed by an infinitive completing "would."]

Wrong: He is not only discourteous to the students but also to the teacher. ["Not only" is followed by an adjective, "but also" by a phrase modifying the adjective.]

Right: He is discourteous not only to the students but also to the teacher. [The correlatives are each followed by a phrase limiting "discourteous."]

Misuse of coördinating conjunctions

122. Do not join by *and*, *but*, or *or* expressions which are not grammatically coördinate. Either omit the conjunction and make one expression properly subordinate, or recast one expression so as to make it coördinate with the other. (For matters of logical coördination see Rules 123, 124, 125.)

Wrong: He put up signs to keep people off the grass and thereby improving the appearance of the campus.

Right: He put up signs to keep people off the grass, thereby improving the appearance of the campus; [or] and thereby improved the appearance of the campus.

Wrong: The gun barrel is then sent to be chambered and slots to be cut in.

Right: The gun barrel is then sent to be chambered and to have slots cut in it.

The foregoing rule has these particular applications:

And which construction

(*a*) **Do not join a relative clause to its principal clause by *and*, *but*, or *or*.** Violations of this rule may be corrected by (1) omitting the conjunction, (2) changing the relative clause to a principal clause, or (3) inserting a relative clause before the conjunction.

Wrong: He came home with an increase in weight, but which hard work soon reduced.

Right: He came home with an increase in weight, which, however, hard work soon reduced; [or] (2) He came home with an increase in weight, but hard work soon reduced it.

Wrong: On the way we met a Mr. Osborn from the neighborhood of Denver and who had the typical Western breeziness.

Right: (1) On the way we met a Mr. Osborn from the neighborhood of Denver, who had the typical Western breeziness; [or] (3) On the way we met a Mr. Osborn, who came from the neighborhood of Denver, and who had the typical Western breeziness.

Which and construction

(*b*) **Do not join a relative clause by *and*, *but*, or *or* to a predicate that cannot, as it stands, be a part of the relative clause.** The test of correct coördination is to omit the first predicate. Violations of this rule may be corrected by (1) making the predicate following the relative clause into another predicate of the relative clause, (2) changing the relative clause into an independent assertion, or (3) omitting the *and*, *but*, or *or*, and changing the predicate following the relative clause into a subordinate element.

Wrong: In this river are some large fish which the people regard as sacred and allow no one to catch them. [Test, "which the people allow no one to catch them."]

Right: (1) In this river are some large fish, which the people regard as sacred and allow no one to catch; [or] (2) In this river are some large fish. The people regard these as sacred, and allow no one to catch them.

Wrong: It is subjected to severe strains, which it must withstand and at the same time work easily and rapidly. [Test, "which it must work easily and rapidly."]

Right: (2) It is subjected to severe strains; it must withstand these, and at the same time must work

easily and rapidly; [or] (3) It is subjected to severe strains, which it must withstand, at the same time working easily and rapidly.

Wrong: Next day I went to Cleveland where I stayed for a week and then returned home. [Test, "where I then returned home."]

Right: (2) Next day I went to Cleveland. There I stayed a week, and then returned home.

123. Do not make a sentence-element similar in form to a preceding element with which it is not coördinate. Incorrect parallelism

Misleading: He is a blunt, manly fellow, who admires a soldier and despises an effeminate fop, who struts about affectedly and dresses daintily.

Right: He is a blunt, manly fellow, who admires a soldier and despises an effeminate, affected, daintily dressed fop.

124. Do not join by *and* and put in the same grammatical construction, two substantives or substantive clauses widely differing in logical function. Junction of incongruous substantives

Bad: The story tells of the bravery and promotion of a private. ["Bravery" designates a quality, "promotion" designates an experience.]

Right: The story tells of a private's bravery and of his promotion.

Bad: He tells in vivid language how dangerous to a vessel is the breaking loose of a cannon on wheels, and how a ship's gunner captured an escaped cannon. [The substantive clause "how dangerous to a vessel is the breaking loose of a cannon" designates a general truth; the substantive clause "how a ship's gunner captured an escaped cannon" designates a specific event.]

Right: He tells in vivid language how a cannon on wheels broke from its fastenings on a ship (explaining the perils that attend such an accident), and how it was captured by a gunner.

Series form for dissimilar elements

125. The formula *a*, *b*, and *c* should not be used for sentence-elements not coördinate. Violations of this rule may be corrected (1) by inserting *and* between *a* and *b*, or (2) by conforming *c* to *a* and *b*.

Bad: He was tall, slim, and wore a black coat. [Here *a* and *b* are adjectives, and *c* is a verb.]

Right: (1) He was tall and slim, and wore a black coat; [or] (2) He was a tall, slim, black-coated fellow.

Bad: We denounce the act as cruel, barbarous, and sincerely regret that it occurred. [Here *a* and *b* are adjectives and *c* is a verb.]

Right: (1) We denounce the act as cruel and barbarous, and sincerely regret that it occurred; [or] (2) We denounce the act as cruel, barbarous, and worthy of condemnation by all right-thinking sophomores.

Unnecessary Shifting

Shifting of subject

126. Avoid unnecessary shifting of subject. (See Rule 127.)

Bad: We passed over the road quickly and soon the camp was in sight.

Right: We passed over the road quickly and soon saw the camp.

Bad: The wars in the Balkan states had renewed old rivalries between Austria and Russia and a general European conflict speedily resulted.

Right: The wars in the Balkan states had renewed old rivalries between Austria and Russia and speedily resulted in a European conflict.

Shifting of voice

127. Avoid unnecessary shifting of voice. The change of voice almost always involves a change of subject. (See Rule 126.)

Bad: He had for years professed himself a democrat, and his belief in the sovereignty of the people was frequently proclaimed.

Right: He had for years professed himself a democrat,

and frequently proclaimed his belief in the sovereignty of the people.

Bad: I wrote my theme, translated my French, and in a few minutes my algebra problems were done.
Right: I wrote my theme, translated my French, and in a few minutes did my algebra problems.

128. Avoid unnecessary shifting of mood. Shifting of mood

Bad: First stir in the flour and then you should add the butter and salt.
Right: First you should stir in the flour and then you should add the butter and salt; [or] Stir in the flour first and then add the butter and salt.

129. Avoid unnecessary shifting of tense. (See Rules 236-238, 184, 186.) Shifting of tense

Bad: The creature opened the door and then comes clanging up the stairs.
Right: The creature opened the door and then came clanging up the stairs; [or] The creature opens the door and then comes clanging up the stairs.

130. Avoid unnecessary shifting of the number of nouns and pronouns. (See Rule 208.) Shifting of number

Bad: Each one knew that their chances for escape were very slight.
Right: Each one knew that his chances for escape were very slight.

Bad: Nobody had yet received their orders.
Right: Nobody had yet received his orders.

131. Avoid unnecessary shifting of person. (See Rules 185, 187.) Shifting of person

Bad: The more we walk, the more we go hill-climbing, the more powerful do the muscular engines of one's heels become.
Improved: The more we walk, the more we go hill-climbing, the more powerful do the muscular engines of our heels become.

Bad: One should spend the morning hours, not on trivial matters, but on work requiring mental effort, for your mind is freshest during those hours.

Improved: One should spend the morning hours, not on trivial matters, but on work requiring mental effort, for one's mind is freshest during those hours.

Miscellaneous Rules

Coherence gained by connectives

132. A sentence may often be made coherent by the insertion of the precise connectives that will indicate the relationship of its parts. (See Rule 62 *b* and *c* and Appendix D.)

Incoherent: The owners of these Colonial houses were ordinarily well-to-do men and they had enough money to live in a pleasant and generous manner, but they could not afford any extravagances, but they built substantially and they were obliged to build economically.

Improved: The owners of these Colonial houses were ordinarily well-to-do men, who had enough money to live in a pleasant and generous manner, but who could not afford any extravagances; consequently, although they built substantially, they were obliged to build economically.

Coherence gained by summarizing words

133. A sentence may often be made coherent by the insertion of summarizing or recapitulating words. (See Appendix D.)

Note the italicized summary words in the following sentences:

"And to set forth the right standard, and to train according to it, and to help forward all students towards it according to their various capacities, *this* I conceive to be the business of a University."
— NEWMAN.

"Broad quadrangles, high halls and chambers, ornamented cloisters, stately walks, or umbrageous gardens, a throng of students, ample revenues, or a glorious history, *none of these things* were the

portion of that old Catholic foundation; *nothing in short* which to the common eye sixty years ago would have given tokens of what it was to be."— NEWMAN.

Omission of unnecessary words

134. A sentence may be made coherent by the omission of unnecessary words. (See Rule 40.)

Wrong: About my grandfather, there are several stories that I should like to relate concerning him.

Right: There are several stories that I should like to relate concerning my grandfather; [or] I should like to relate several stories concerning my grandfather.

Wrong: There were many of us went before the meeting was over.

Right: Many of us went before the meeting was over.

EMPHASIS

General principle

135. Emphasis in the sentence means the arrangement of the parts of the sentence to make upon the reader a forceful impression. Emphasis, however, must never be gained at the expense of coherence.

Transposition

136. Emphasis may be gained by putting words out of their usual order, which in English is subject, predicate, object.

Emphatic: Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends.

Emphatic: Understand her you cannot.

NOTE. — Transposition should be used sparingly in prose. Because it is a violation of the usual English order, its frequent use gives the effect of artificiality.

Parenthetic position of modifiers

137. For the sake of emphasis and clearness a modifier of a clause may often with advantage be inserted within the clause it modifies rather than placed before or after.

Clear and forcible: If, after all that has been said, you still hesitate, I despair of persuading you.

Parenthetic position of *therefore, however,* etc.

138. For the sake of beginning the sentence with words that deserve distinction, it is often advantageous to place *however, therefore, nevertheless, moreover, also,* and the like, within the sentences they introduce rather than at the beginning. Such words should be placed early in the sentence, so that their qualifying effect is seen at first glance.

Less emphatic: His master was always very kind to him. However, his master's wife was altogether too parsimonious.

Better: His master was always very kind to him. His master's wife, however, was altogether too parsimonious.

Inferior: The study of birds is fascinating. It requires a great deal of patience, however.

Better: The study of birds is fascinating. It requires, however, a great deal of patience.

NOTE. — This caution includes such expressions as *I think* and *it seems to me.* Do not place these particles and expressions at the ends of clauses.

Bad: There is another use for this machine, I think.

Right: There is, I think, another use for this machine.

Strong close

139. For force, close sentences strongly; put unimportant phrases elsewhere than at the end. Transforming a loose sentence into a periodic sentence — one in which the main clause is not completed until the end — is an effective means of securing emphasis.

Inferior: Then he would return to work, whistling a merry tune all the while.

Better: Then he would return to work, all the while whistling a merry tune.

Inferior: He said nothing, but kept looking at my neck for some reason or other.

Better: He said nothing, but for some reason or other kept looking at my neck.

Loose: We were drenched to the skin in spite of our rubber coats before we had gone a hundred yards through the wet grass and underbrush that covered the hillside.

Loose but satisfactory: Before we had gone a hundred yards through the wet grass and underbrush that covered the hillside, we were drenched to the skin in spite of our rubber coats.

Periodic: Before we had gone a hundred yards through the wet grass and underbrush that covered the hillside, in spite of our rubber coats we were drenched to the skin.

A sentence ending with a preposition

NOTE. — The foregoing rule does not concern a matter of correct or incorrect practice, but merely a matter of greater or less rhetorical effectiveness. The common belief that a sentence ending with a preposition is on that account incorrect is a mistake; such sentences abound in good literature; *e.g.:*

"I will not say that the meaning of Shakespeare's names . . . may be entirely lost sight of." — ARNOLD.

"M. Planche's advantage is . . . that there is a force of cultivated opinion for him to appeal to." — ARNOLD.

Moreover, such sentences, as Professor Hill remarks, "do not contravene the principle which forbids a writer to throw stress on unimportant words; for . . . the stress is thrown, not on the last word, but on the next to the last."

Climactic order

140. A series of assertions or modifiers noticeably varying in strength should be placed in climactic order, unless the writer intends to make an anticlimax for the sake of humor.

Weak: I think that the characters are well drawn, the diction is stately and beautiful, and the plot is very interesting.

Improved: I think that the plot is very interesting, the characters are well drawn, and the diction is stately and beautiful.

Weak: He proved himself to be mercilessly cruel at times, unforgiving, and discourteous.

Improved: He proved himself to be unforgiving, discourteous, and at times mercilessly cruel.

Upside-down subordination

141. Do not put a logically principal statement in a subordinate clause and the logically subordinate statement in the principal clause unless there is some good reason for such inversion.

Bad: I was walking down State Street yesterday when I came upon a crowd of people gathered about a horse that had fallen down.

Right: As I was walking down State Street yesterday I came upon a crowd of people, etc.

Bad: The thoughts of the engineer turned toward the home he was approaching when suddenly he saw the glare of fire on the track ahead.

Right: The thoughts of the engineer turned toward the home he was approaching. Suddenly he saw the glare of fire on the track ahead.

Bad: Having finished their work, they began to talk about former good times when one of the fellows suggested that they haze Nicholson.

Right: Having finished their work, they began to talk about former good times. Presently one of the fellows suggested that they haze Nicholson.

Balanced sentence

142. Emphasis may be gained by using the balanced sentence. (See Rule 115.)

Emphatic: Then the eyes of the blind shall be opened, and the ears of the deaf shall be unstopped.

Emphatic: "He is patient, forbearing, and resigned, on philosophical principles; he submits to pain, because it is inevitable, to bereavement, because it is irreparable, and to death, because it is his destiny." — NEWMAN.

NOTE. — Antithesis or contrast may be used for emphasis.

Emphatic: "The Puritans hated bear-baiting, not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators." — MACAULAY.

143. Emphasis may be gained by proportion. Proportion
Greater space should be given to the more important statement in a sentence. Proportion, however, may be used more effectively in larger units of discourse than the sentence.

(Emphasis upon less important details.) Then came my first glimpse of the Pacific Ocean — a sight I should never have had except for my uncle's thoughtfulness and generosity in asking me to join him and his family on their trip to the coast.

144. Emphasis may be gained by cutting out unnecessary words. (See Rules 39–41.) Excision

Unemphatic: The happiest memories that I retain from my childhood are the memories that center about the summers that I spent on my grandfather's farm. (24 words)

Improved: My happiest childhood memories are of the summers spent on my grandfather's farm. (13 words)

145. Emphasis may be gained by the repetition of important words. (See Rules 56–59.) Repetition

Emphatic repetition: When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child: but when I became a man, I put away childish things.

Fairly emphatic: I am not afraid of the dark, nor of high places; nor am I frightened by animals. I dread a monster more intangible than any of these — Fear of Fear.

Emphatic: I am not afraid of the dark, nor of high places; nor am I afraid of animals. I am afraid of a monster more intangible than any of these — Fear of Fear.

Exercise 1

Revise such of the following sentences as you find ununified, stating in each case the rule that applies. State also your reason for considering any sentence unified. Unity

Unity

1. Our greatest adventure was our participation in the World War, which we brought to a successful conclusion and prevented the Germans from subjugating Great Britain and France and ultimately our own country, at a cost of billions of dollars and great suffering and hardship to our soldiers, to whom the country will always be grateful, and is now providing generously for the disabled, and will provide for all when time and conditions permit.

2. Among the average herd of Jersey cattle, she will appear to be small. She weighs about seven hundred and fifty pounds and is seven years old.

3. There were several other boys whom I knew much better than Carl, and no lasting friendship has resulted from them.

4. In the center of the field, a team was practicing. One player was knocking flies and grounders. His teammates were fielding them. Their uniforms were gray and their socks banded in gold.

5. Near the benches, which were placed on either side of the field, were rows of bats and managers were keeping them in order.

6. The typical cowboy is not (although there are but few left) extinct as yet, but contrary to public opinion they are not ignorant, but good-natured and well-educated boys.

7. The fine manners of a Southerner are known the world over because he will not tolerate discourtesy to any lady.

8. The number of people attending universities is gradually increasing, people are beginning to put into practice their beliefs that more money can be earned with the aid of an education.

9. "Next," called the dean's assistant in a foreboding tone. My turn was drawing near. I tied another knot in my handkerchief. I wriggled restlessly to the edge of the bench that guarded the door to a little office marked "Dean of Women" in straight black letters. I was waiting for a conference that I had not requested. There was no denying it, I was nervous.

10. Gray persistent rain beat down unceasingly from the cheerless leaden sky overhead. A dogged beating, beating rain, which had drenched all outdoors.

11. There is the man who is a racing fanatic who will bet his own clothing on a horse race. Unity

12. The island is far from the mainland so it is seldom visited by tourists.

13. I have made many friends this first year in college, but none of them has been such a good friend as John, but of course I have known him for ten years.

14. Despite the fact that this cow has soft, gentle eyes, she has a bad disposition. When she is slightly disturbed, she becomes very wild. When she is in this mood, she seems to be more like a tiger than a dairy cow.

15. He fought the sea monsters as though they were mice. Although this was easy to do, for he had armor on and a sword in his hand.

16. Most of my classmates in high school had no ambition to get a better education, so they wondered why I wanted to go to college.

17. No two people think alike or reason in quite the same way; from childhood we all form likes and dislikes; we establish opinions on religion, on politics, on society, on peace and war, and on all types of human relationships.

18. In such a world of affairs as we live in, almost everyone has need for an extensive knowledge of business principles, and should I decide, upon finishing college, if I ever do so, not to follow the line of business, I should not consider my energies at all wasted, for I should be better fitted to carry on my own private affairs and dealings with my fellow beings and to conduct more intelligently any work either private or public which I might undertake.

19. The town had hoped he would leave his five hundred thousand dollars for the building of a new gymnasium, for our high school is very old and was erected before athletic games were considered as essential as they are now.

20. As the argument continued, more girls drifted into our room. Each one adding her thoughts on the subject, all of them trying to help.

21. Better not smoke now, he thought. There had always been trouble about his smoking. She had hated the smell. Hated to have ashes scattered around. Now that he was home again, he had better be civilized. No use trying to sneak, for she'd be sure to smell the smoke.

Unity

22. The townspeople are discouraged about raising the money, for a large percentage of the citizens are farmers who cannot donate to the fund, for they are heavily burdened with debts.

23. One evening I came home very much elated because I had had a most enjoyable evening because I was certain that I had made a good impression on my hostesses.

24. I think that the question of allowing Sunday sports is of special interest in the spring, because it is so easy on wintry Sundays to sit all day by the fireplace with the latest scandal sheet and a box of candy, lazily patting yourself on the back for not having to go outdoors to play under stormy skies.

25. In that family the husband rules, and the wife stays at home and does the housework and takes care of the children. Which is as it should be.

26. This new ruling will force many fraternity men to seek more expensive lodgings when they had planned on living as cheaply as possible when forced to attend the summer session because of a system of scale grading that flunked them in perhaps only one course.

27. If then the power of speech is a gift as great as any that can be named — if the origin of language is by many philosophers even considered to be nothing short of divine — if by means of words the secrets of the heart are brought to light, pain of soul is relieved, hidden grief is carried off, sympathy conveyed, counsel imparted, experience recorded, and wisdom perpetuated — if by great authors the many are drawn up into unity, national character is fixed, a people speaks, the past and the future, the East and the West are brought into communication with each other — if such men are, in a word, the spokesmen and prophets of the human family — it will not answer to make light of literature or to neglect its study; rather we may be sure that, in proportion as we master it in whatever language, and imbibe its spirit, we shall ourselves become in our own measure the ministers of like benefits to others, be they many or few, be they in the obscurer or the more distinguished walks of life — who are united to us by social ties, and are within the sphere of our personal influence.

— John Henry Newman.

Exercise 2

Rewrite the following sentences to make them coherent. State in each case the rule that applies. Coherence

1. When a school is composed of the best students only, everyone would require the same training, making it an easier task to educate them. 2. An earthen pot was found by the head of everybody buried in graveyard, and they varied in size according to the size of the person. 3. While excavating among the mounds in this burial ground, many articles were found. 4. The country around the mounds is rather hilly and wild, which makes it a natural place for Indians to live. 5. The water is warm this beautiful morning, and followed by a cool shower imparts a rosy glow and a feeling of unconquerable strength. 6. Soon after putting the coal into the stove, the flames began shooting out of all the cracks in the old stove. 7. Southerners are a very healthy people which is due to the outdoor life that they lead. 8. I daring to aspire to be a botanist, and with one line of my ancestors coming from Berlin and the other from Dublin, I am studying French. 9. If these ladies really did good in the right way, instead of meeting to gossip about this unfortunate family, they would ask their husbands to find the man a job, and, instead of visiting the wife for an opportunity of looking over her house in a kindly inconspicuous way, they would help her organize her household so that she could find some time to rest. 10. I know a student who was on probation every semester that he was in school. He just managed to get by, but he spends much effort and energy doing it. He always takes his limit of cuts the first two weeks, and then if he oversleeps or wants to go out of town for a week-end, he will spend hours trying to convince the doctors that he was ill.

11. Harley is sitting beside me writing a letter to his family whose purpose is also to make the same request that I am making of you. 12. We only want to stay away three months. 13. Everything that he does is done with an eye on convention and etiquette — which is a good thing when not carried to extremes. 14. When the fact that instructors and apparatus must be provided for each course, and that therefore the greater the number of courses the greater the expense to the community is, is

Coherence

considered, it becomes obvious that the curriculum of the junior college will be small. 15. Nothing was done to prevent the factory owners from hiring labor at extremely low rates, which they proceeded to do. 16. He was very fond of reading, his mind was keen, and he had formed the habit of learning apt phrases. 17. A golf course full of hazards has nothing on cutting a lawn full of lawn ornaments. 18. Looking about a mile westward, the first big object which we see is the international railway bridge. 19. I believe that the reason why Socrates was condemned to death was because during his trial he did not appeal to the people to be forgiven. 20. There is no doubt that every one is busy earning money, and not much time is spent in the study of the fine arts.

21. Here everyone registers, pays their fees, and finds out where they are to stay. 22. Because of his old age, that is why Socrates preferred death to exile. 23. I think that we should build there because most of the sororities have or are going to build there. 24. I was forced to go outside the first boat to get around, and in doing so, the boat directly behind me cut me off. 25. He believed that a student should be taught his hardest subjects first and mastering one subject at a time before beginning another. 26. As an illustration that aërodromes can be made to be profitable is told by A. H. Abel in the March issue of the *Airway Age*. 27. He was determined to again try to find out where the knock came from.

Exercise 3

Emphasis

Rewrite the following sentences to make them more emphatic. State in each case the rule that applies.

1. The enjoyment that I have in swimming is highly spiced with thrills, for there is usually some sort of excitement to be had. 2. He could never resist the temptation to be clever, no matter whose expense his cleverness might be at. 3. Seeing my father draped in a long black judge's robe and perched up behind the bench like a lollipop in a display case furnished me with so much amusement that I usually did not mind having to wait a long time for him before his case was brought to a close so that he might take me out to lunch. 4. It was a gloomy day, the gentle rain

and the dark clouds overhead casting an appearance of depression and dejection upon all terrestrial objects. 5. My ideal of a gentleman is a man of culture, refinement, fine feelings, and good manners. 6. They had saved for years when suddenly they lost everything in the bank failure. 7. In October, 1793, Marie Antoinette was executed in Paris, after a trial in which false and atrocious charges were urged against her in addition to the treasonable acts of which she had been guilty. 8. I could carry only my blue china pig bank, my flowered parasol, and a ruffled net handkerchief, I found. 9. When the temple was finished, a debasing, almost wild ceremony was held, we are told. 10. You think that college has changed since you attended an institution of higher learning. Emphasis

11. He was hated by those opposed to his religious beliefs, and he was almost always misunderstood. 12. The geographical topography of the land upon which my home town is built and the region immediately surrounding it is very level. 13. He had a heart of gold, and generosity seemed to be always first with him. 14. Giant workmen, stripped to the waist, were exerting their powerful strength in handling the three-ton buckets of white-hot metal. 15. A man can be engaged in almost any occupation and be a gentleman: he can be a football player and a real fellow and still be such a man. 16. There have been many recent criticisms directed toward the present generation in regard to the light in which they hold the idea of good manners. 17. It was only in my senior year that I considered such a thing as a profession. Therefore, when my high school days were over, I was still in a state of indecision as to the course in which I should enroll. 18. His fat, pudgy fingers barely stretched five white keys from "c" to "g," and as he thumbed, his head came down in accent, a suggestion of a tongue struggled in the corner of his mouth, and he kept his feet swinging free under the piano bench, moving back and forth in time with the music and his bobbing head. 19. When you have true wisdom, you can see at once the cloud and the sun, the shadow and the light; you can compare the height of the church spire with that of the factory smoke-stack; the whole course of the stream will be clear to you.

Mechanical Marks of a Paragraph

Indention: Of ordinary paragraphs

146. In manuscript the first line of every paragraph should be indented at least an inch. (See Plate II, line 1, p. 249.)

Of numbered paragraphs

147. No exception to the foregoing rule should be made when paragraphs are numbered.

Wrong:

I. What power has Congress to punish crimes?

II. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.

III. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a State legislature to choose them?

Right:

I. What power has Congress to punish crimes?

II. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.

III. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a State legislature to choose them?

Irregular indention

148. The first lines of all paragraphs should begin at the same distance from the margin; do not indent the beginning of one paragraph an inch, that of another two inches, that of another half an inch, etc.

Incorrect indention

149. Only the first line of a prose paragraph should be indented, except for special reasons; as for instance in 349–351.

Incorrect spacing out

150. After the end of a sentence do not leave the remainder of the line blank unless the sentence ends a

paragraph; begin the next sentence on the same line, if there is room. This rule is violated in Plate I, line 4, p. 248.

Division of a Composition into Paragraphs

Paragraphing as an Aid to Clearness

The fundamental principle

151. Paragraphing, if properly employed, gives the reader as much assistance in understanding a whole composition as punctuation gives him in understanding a sentence. **Parts of a composition that are distinct in topic may by paragraphing be made distinct to the eye also** — an effect that promotes clearness. For instance, suppose an essay on Queen Elizabeth discusses three topics: (1) Elizabeth's personal character, (2) her character as a ruler, and (3) her popularity with her subjects. To embody the three passages corresponding to these three topics in separate paragraphs makes evident at once the beginning and the end of each passage, and thus enables the reader to grasp without effort the structure of the essay.

(i) Paragraphing of distinct parts

152. A passage entirely distinct in topic from what precedes and follows should be written as a separate paragraph.

Thus, suppose an essay on gasoline engines presents —

(*m*) An explanation of the operation of gasoline engines.

(*n*) An estimate of gasoline engines as compared with other kinds of engines.

Parts *m* and *n* should be embodied in separate paragraphs. Suppose a story tells —

(*m*) The hero's visit to the bank and his transactions there.

(*n*) What was happening meanwhile at the hero's factory.

Parts *m* and *n* should be embodied in separate paragraphs.

Paragraphs of introduction and conclusion

153. A passage that serves as an introduction or a conclusion to a composition consisting of several paragraphs should be paragraphed separately, even if it consists of only one or two sentences.

Correct paragraphing:

The large body of recent State legislation compelling railway companies to reduce passenger fares, though it probably sprang from good intentions, is likely to have three unfortunate consequences.

[*The main body of the essay consists of three paragraphs, each discussing one of the three unfortunate consequences.*]

One cannot foretell, of course, how many years will elapse before these three results of the recent railway legislation will work themselves out; it may be five years, or it may be a dozen. But that they will sooner or later work themselves out seems, in the light of history, practically certain.

Paragraphs of transition

154. A passage that serves merely to make a transition from one group of paragraphs to a following group should be paragraphed separately.

Correct paragraphing:

[*The achievements of Macaulay as a man of letters are discussed for three or four paragraphs.*]

Macaulay's political achievements, though less distinguished than his literary achievements, are worthy of a somewhat detailed notice.

[*Two or three paragraphs follow, dealing with Macaulay's political career.*]

NOTE. — A brief transition sentence may often be included in the paragraph which develops the new topic; it should not be tacked on to the paragraph preceding.

Correct:

[*The need for audacious accuracy as a desirable quality in speech has been discussed for several paragraphs.*]

Such audacious accuracy, however, distinguishing as it does noble speech from commonplace speech, can be practiced only by him who has a wide range of words. Our ordinary range of words is absurdly narrow. It is important, therefore, for anybody who would cultivate himself in English to make strenuous and systematic efforts to enlarge his vocabulary.

—G. H. PALMER.

[*Then follow three paragraphs discussing range of vocabulary.*] (Note that the transition sentence is included in the first paragraph on *range of vocabulary*, a few sentences of which are quoted.)

155. In narratives, as a rule, any direct quotation, together with the rest of the sentence of which it is a part, should be paragraphed separately. Paragraphing of direct quotations

Right:

There were no takers. Not a man believed him capable of the feat. Thornton had been hurried into the wager, heavy with doubt; and now that he looked at the sled itself, the concrete fact, with the regular team of ten dogs curled up in the snow before it, the more impossible the task appeared. Mathewson waxed jubilant.

"Three to one," he proclaimed. "I'll lay you another thousand at that figure, Thornton. What d'ye say?"

Thornton's doubt was strong in his face, but his fighting spirit was aroused — the fighting spirit that soars above odds, fails to recognize the impossible, and is deaf to all save the clamor for battle. He called Hans and Pete to him. Their sacks were . . .

156. Rule 155 should be especially observed in the report of a conversation; each speech, regardless of length, should be paragraphed separately. Dialogue

Wrong:

"When did you arrive?" I asked. "An hour ago," he answered. "Didn't you get my letter?" "No." "Strange," he said.

Right:

"When did you arrive?" I asked.

"An hour ago," he answered. "Didn't you get my letter?"

"No."

"Strange," he said.

Indention after a quotation

157. In order to paragraph an isolated quotation separately (as is done in the example under Rule 155), the line following the quotation must be indented.

Indention in the midst of a sentence

158. A quotation may be detached by paragraphing from the introductory expression (*e.g.*, *he said*) if this expression precedes it.

Right:

Mr. Peggotty looked around upon us and nodding his head with a lively expression animating his face said in a whisper,

"She's been thinking of the old 'un." — DICKENS.

But a quotation should not be so detached from the introductory expression if the quotation does not close the sentence.

Wrong:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him,

"Come on. Who's afraid?" and started into the house.

Wrong:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him,

"Come on. Who's afraid?"

and started into the house.

Right:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I

called out to him, "Come on. Who's afraid?" and started into the house.

(ii) Grouping of related parts

159. When several consecutive short passages present slightly different topics, yet collectively form a larger division of a composition, the distinctness and unity of the whole division should be made apparent, rather than the individuality of its parts. Hence these short passages should not be written each in a separate paragraph, but should be combined into one paragraph.

Thus in an essay on a steel factory, describing —

(*a*) The process of sheet-rolling,
(*b*) The process of rail-rolling,
(*c*) The process of casting,

part *b* should not be written as follows:

Steel ingots six feet long and six inches square were heated to a white heat in a large oven.

When sufficiently hot, an ingot was removed and taken on an endless chain to the first set of rollers.

These rollers were eighteen inches in diameter. When the ingot had been passed through them, it was a bar of steel ten feet long and five inches thick.

Then the bar of steel was put on another endless chain and taken to a second pair of rollers.

This process was continued, the bar being passed successively through five or six pairs of rollers.

It came from the last pair a red-hot rail of standard size.

It was next bent slightly so that the base was convex. This was to allow for unequal contraction in cooling.

The rail was now left to cool.

When cold, it was taken to the cold rollers and rolled perfectly straight.

The foregoing passage should be written as a single paragraph; and so should part *a* and part *c* of the same essay.

(iii) Paragraphing where there is no change of topic

160. The beginning of a new paragraph naturally leads the reader to think that the discussion of a new topic is beginning. Therefore, to begin a new paragraph where the discussion of a new topic does not begin misleads the reader.

The paragraphing in the following passage, for example, is illogical and objectionable:

> The beauty of Fra Angelico's character has been the admiration of all who ever studied the life of that devout and gentle artist. He might have lived in ease and comfort, for his art would have made him rich; instead, he chose the cloister life. Fra Angelico was gentle and kindly to all.
>
> He was never seen to display anger and if he admonished his friends, it was with mildness. . . .

In this passage, the discussion of the gentleness of Fra Angelico begins in the sentence "Fra Angelico was gentle," etc.; the sentence "He was never," etc., continues the discussion of this topic — does not introduce a new topic. Hence, there should be no paragraph division where one now stands; the sentence "He was never," etc., should follow without a break.

Length of Paragraphs

Paragraphs too long

161. Extended composition or passages in the text with no paragraph-breaks may strain the reader's attention; shorter paragraphs give him more frequent opportunity to summarize the thought. A passage more than 300 words long, even if it constitutes a single unit of composition, should usually not be written as a single paragraph, but should be divided into two or three paragraphs of convenient length (*i.e.*, not longer than 200 words).

Thus, an essay on Lincoln, presenting —

1. A narrative of his life (350 words)
2. An estimate of his greatness (100 words)

should not be written as two paragraphs corresponding to the two main divisions of the material, but should be paragraphed in some such way as the following:

¶ Events of life up to 1860 (200 words)
¶ Career as president (150 words)
¶ Estimate of his greatness (100 words)

Over-frequent paragraph-ing

162. Overfrequent paragraphing indicates either a lack of development or a failure to see the relationship of the thoughts. Hence, a composition no longer than 150 words should usually be written without any paragraph divisions.

Sentences made conspicuous by detachment

163. A sentence or a short passage which the writer wishes to make especially emphatic may be paragraphed separately.

Thus, in the following passage the italicized part does not require to be paragraphed as being distinct from the preceding part; but it may properly be set apart for emphasis.

> Indefinite narrative should not be entirely avoided; it is useful, and for some purposes is preferable to concrete narrative. Parts of a story that are not of dramatic interest, speeches that are of no interest or importance, — these may properly be conveyed by indefinite rather than by concrete narrative. But remember this:
>
> *Actions occurring at important points of a story should be related by concrete, not indefinite narrative.*

Unity

Unity of a paragraph

164. A paragraph, by its visible detachment from what precedes and follows, suggests the unity of the passage it embodies. A passage not logically consti-

tuting a unit should not be put into one paragraph and thus presented under the guise of unity. If the paragraph can be summarized completely in one unified sentence, then the paragraph is unified.

Ununified:

Snow tonight swept across many Big Ten gridirons. Illinois worked out strenuously for Ohio State, hoping to find the Buckeyes in a relapse after their keying for Michigan. A victory would enable Illinois to finish with a single loss. Ohio State regards the Michigan victory by one point as a bad break, the memory of which they hope to erase at Urbana Saturday.

Ununified:

History tells us that not many years ago, men, women, and children left their happy homes and wended their way across the plains and over the Rocky Mountains to the little streams of California in search of the precious metal, gold. Who of us, though, have ever heard of men making a rush for iron ore? Iron ore is found in many places in the United States; in fact it can be found in some quantity, whether small or large, in almost every state. The greatest deposit of iron ore is to be found in the Lake Superior region. Here the metal lies close to the surface while in almost all of the other regions the ore runs in small deep veins.

Unified:

The House and Senate are naturally unlike. They are different both in constitution and character. They do not represent the same things. The House of Representatives is by intention the popular chamber, meant to represent the people by direct election through an extensive suffrage, while the Senate was designed to represent the states as political units, as the constituent members of the Union. The terms of membership in the two houses, moreover, are different. The two chambers were unquestionably intended to derive their authority from different sources and to speak with different voices in affairs; and however

much they may have departed from their original characters in the changeful processes of our politics, they still represent many sharp contrasts to one another, and must be described as playing, not the same but very distinct and dissimilar rôles in affairs.

— Woodrow Wilson.

Topic sentence

165. A paragraph often contains a sentence that summarizes all the material in the paragraph. This sentence, the topic sentence, is frequently placed at the beginning of the paragraph. (Note the unified paragraph quoted in Rule 164.)

Coherence

Arrangement of sentences

166. The sentences in a paragraph should be so arranged that the thought progresses in logical sequence.

Incoherent:

When I was a child, I was lured to water by an uncontrollable instinct. One day a friend and I set out in a canoe to paddle down the small river which flowed through our town. The movement of the water pressing steadily on and urging on our light boat fascinated me. We paddled for hours until we reached a part of the river that was unfamiliar to us. We had obtained a wonderful canoe, which fairly leaped over the water. At each turn of the bank of the stream, we craned our necks to see what was coming. As the world drifted by us, we stared at the unfamiliar sights. We had a wonderful trip, but of course we suffered for our fun when we reached home. The canoe had been taken without the owner's permission.

Improved:

When I was a child, I was lured to water by an uncontrollable instinct. One day a friend and I set out in a canoe, which we had borrowed without the owner's permission, and paddled down the small river flowing through our town. I was fascinated by the movement of the water pressing steadily on

and urging on our light boat. The canoe, a good one, fairly leaped over the water. At each turn of the bank of the stream, we craned our necks to see what was coming. As the world drifted by us, we stared at the unfamiliar sights. We had a wonderful trip, but, of course, we suffered for our fun when we reached home.

Transitional words and phrases

167. The relationship between the sentences in a paragraph may be made clear by the use of transitional words. (See Appendix D.)

Coherent:

That the state of nature, at any time, is a temporary phase of a process of incessant change, which has been going on for innumerable ages, appears to me to be a proposition as well established as any in modern history. Paleontology assures us, *in addition*, that the ancient philosophers who, with less reason, held the same doctrine, erred in supposing that the phases formed a cycle, exactly repeating the past, exactly foreshadowing the future, in their rotations. *On the contrary*, it furnishes us with conclusive reasons for thinking that, if every link in the ancestry of these humble indigenous plants had been preserved and were accessible to us, the whole would present a converging series of forms of gradually diminishing complexity, until at some period in the history of the earth, far more remote than any of which organic remains have yet been discovered, they would merge in those low groups among which the boundaries between animal and vegetable life become effaced. — T. H. Huxley.

Filling in a gap in thought

168. A paragraph may sometimes be made coherent by filling in a gap in the thought.

Incoherent:

The university, if it is to be a real exponent of a liberal education, must resist vigorously the modern tendency toward extracurricular activities of one kind or another. Athletics, literary societies, homecomings, foundation days have their place in college

life and are valuable. Our stadium, costing about $2,000,000, seating about 70,000 persons, and rising from the prairie as a huge architectural monstrosity, is now for several months of the year the center of university thought and activity. Vast throngs are attracted to our community, but no one of these has any thought for the real function of the university. There are wild demonstrations of loyalty for the team and the institution, but little or no interest in academic work. A university must be built on something more substantial than college songs, class cheers, and sentimental loyalty.

Improved:

The university, if it is to be the real exponent of a liberal education, must resist vigorously the modern tendency toward extracurricular activities of one kind or another. Athletics, literary societies, homecomings, foundation days have their place in college life and are valuable *within certain limits, but they ought not to become the center of interest.* Our stadium, costing about $2,000,000, seating about 70,000 persons, etc.

Repetition of words

169. Coherence may be gained by the repetition of words at the close of one sentence and at the beginning of the next sentence.

Coherent:

. . . His conduct has, indeed, on some questions, been so Whiggish, that both those who applauded and those who condemned it have questioned his claim to be considered a *Tory*. But his *Toryism*, such as it is, he has held fast through all changes of fortune and fashion . . . — MACAULAY.

Ordering a sentence with reference to the preceding sentence

170. Coherence may be gained by arranging the members of a sentence so as to form close connection with the preceding sentence.

Inferior: He wished to examine the planet Mars, then in the western part of the sky. He began to turn the telescope in order to do this.

Better: He wished to examine the planet Mars, then in the western part of the sky. In order to do this, he began to turn the telescope.

Parallel construction

171. Coherence may be gained by sentences parallel in form.

Coherent.

. . . The weakness of the modern Romantic poet is that he must keep himself aloof from life, that he may see it. He rejects authority, and many of the pleasures, along with the duties, of society. He looks out from his window on the men fighting in the plain, and sees them transfigured under the rays of the setting sun. He enjoys the battle, but not as the fighters enjoy it. He nurses himself in all the luxury of philosophic sensation. He does not help to bury the child, or to navigate the schooner, or to discover the Fortunate Islands. . . . — Sir Walter Raleigh.

Emphasis

Proportion

172. Emphasis may be placed upon the important idea in the paragraph by giving it more space than is given to the less important ideas.

Emphatic:

In this sense, silly folk and dullards *think*. The story is told of a man in slight repute for intelligence, who, desiring to be chosen selectman in his New England town, addressed a knot of neighbors in this wise: "I hear you don't believe I know enough to hold office. I wish you to understand that I am thinking about something or other most of the time." Now reflective thought is like this random coursing of things through the mind in that it consists of a succession of things thought of; but it is unlike, in that the mere chance occurrence of any chance "something or other" in an irregular sequence does not suffice. Reflection involves not simply a sequence of ideas, but a *con*sequence — a consecutive ordering in such a way that each determines the next as its proper outcome, while each in turn leans back on its predecessors.

The successive portions of the reflective thought grow out of one another and support one another; they do not come and go in a medley. Each phase is a step from something to something — technically speaking, it is a term of thought. Each term leaves a deposit which is utilized in the next term. The stream or flow becomes a train, chain, or thread. — DEWEY.

173. Emphasis may be placed upon the important ideas in the paragraph by putting them at the beginning and at the end of the paragraph. Coherence, however, must not be sacrificed for the sake of emphasis. Position

Emphatic:

Pepys has, indeed, had full reward for all his pains. Since the appearance of his Diary in the first abbreviated form which printed scarcely half of its contents, much learned and loving labor has been spent on its elucidation. The ingenuity and industry of successive editors has enlarged our knowledge and understanding of the work; the two original volumes, what with inclusion of the parts at first suppressed and a great bulk of comment, have increased to ten. One editor has retranscribed the manuscript, another has compiled a book on Pepys and the world he lived in; the family genealogy has been unearthed and a study made of one of its members as "a later Pepys"; so far has the reflected glory shone. The diarist's early life has been laid bare; his letters published, with his will; his portraits reproduced; a whole book on Pepys as a lover of music has appeared; an essay on the sermons that he heard; even the medical aspects of his married life have been explained by a physician-author. Essayists and bookmakers still find in him an ever-fertile subject for their pens; no biographical dictionary or encyclopedia is without a full account of the great diarist; and rising finally to the full stature of a real biography, few names to-day in English literature are better known, few classics more widely read or more enjoyed. — W. C. ABBOTT.

Parallel construction

174. Emphasis as well as coherence may be gained by sentences parallel in form. (See Rule 171.)

Paragraph Development

Methods of development

175. Develop the central thought of the paragraph as fully as is necessary for a clear understanding of the idea. The usual methods of paragraph development are: (*a*) definition, (*b*) illustration or example, (*c*) comparison or contrast, (*d*) generalization based upon particular facts and details, (*e*) repetition, (*f*) elimination, (*g*) relation of cause and effect, (*h*) combination of methods. The choice of method should of course depend upon one's material and purpose.

(*a*) Definition

> Well, what I mean by Education is learning the rules of this mighty game. In other words, education is the instruction of the intellect in the laws of Nature, under which name I include not merely things and their forces but men and their ways; and the fashioning of the affections and of the will into an earnest and loving desire to move in harmony with those laws. For me education means neither more nor less than this. Anything which professes to call itself education must be tried by this standard, and if it fails to stand the test, I will not call it education, whatever may be the force of authority, or of numbers, upon the other side. — T. H. Huxley.

(*b*) Illustration or example

> With the single exception of Falstaff, all Shakespeare's characters are what we call "marrying men." Mercutio, as he was own cousin to Benedick and Biron, would have come to the same end in the long run. Even Iago had a wife, and, what is far stranger, he was jealous. People like Jacques and the Fool in *Lear*, although we can hardly imagine they would ever marry, kept single out of a cynical humour or for a broken heart, and not, as we do nowadays, from a

spirit of incredulity and preference for the single state. For that matter, if you turn to George Sand's French version of *As You Like It* (and I think I can promise you will like it but little), you will find Jacques marries Celia just as Orlando marries Rosalind.

— STEVENSON.

(*c*) Comparison or contrast

See the exquisite contrast of the types of mind! The pragmatist clings to facts and concreteness, observes truth at its work in particular cases, and generalizes. Truth, for him, becomes a class-name for all sorts of definite working-values in experience. For the rationalist it remains a pure abstraction, to the bare name of which we must defer. When the pragmatist undertakes to show in detail just *why* we must defer, the rationalist is unable to recognize the concretes from which his own abstraction is taken. He accuses us of *denying* truth; whereas we have only sought to trace exactly why people follow it and always ought to follow it. Your typical ultra-abstractionist fairly shudders at concreteness: other things equal, he positively prefers the pale and spectral. If the two universes were offered, he would always choose the skinny outline rather than the rich thicket of reality. It is so much purer, clearer, nobler. — WILLIAM JAMES.

(*d*) Generalization based upon particular facts and details

The want of serious and sustained thinking is not confined to politics. One feels it even more as regards economical and social questions. To it must be ascribed the vitality of certain prejudices and fallacies which could scarcely survive the continuous application of such vigorous minds as one finds among the Americans. Their quick perceptions serve them so well in business and in the ordinary affairs of private life that they do not feel the need for minute investigation and patient reflection on the underlying principles of things. They are apt to ignore difficulties, and when they can no longer ignore them, they will

evade them rather than lay siege to them according to the rules of art. The sense that there is not time to spare haunts an American even when he might find the time, and would do best for himself by finding it.
— James Bryce.

(*e*) Repetition

With all this in mind, I have often been tempted to put forth the paradox that any place is good enough to live a life in, while it is only in a few, and those highly favored, that we can pass a few hours agreeably. For, if we only stay long enough, we become at home in the neighborhood. Reminiscences spring up, like flowers, about uninteresting corners. We forget to some degree the superior loveliness of other places, and fall into a tolerant and sympathetic spirit which is its own reward and justification. Looking back the other day on some recollections of my own, I was astonished to find how much I owed to such a residence; six weeks in one unpleasant country-side had done more, it seemed, to quicken and educate my sensibilities than many years in places that jumped more nearly with my inclination. — Stevenson.

(*f*) Elimination (Note how the author first tells what peace is not meant, and then what peace is meant.)

The proposition is peace. Not peace through the medium of war; not peace to be hunted through the labyrinth of intricate and endless negotiations; not peace to arise out of universal discord fomented, from principle, in all parts of the empire; not peace to depend on the juridical determinations of perplexing questions, or the precise marking of the shadowy boundaries of a complex government. It is simple peace; sought in its natural course, and in its ordinary haunts. It is peace sought in the spirit of peace, and laid in principles purely pacific. I propose, by removing the ground of the difference, and by restoring the former unsuspecting confidence of the colonies in the Mother Country, to give permanent satisfaction to your

people; and (far from a scheme of ruling by discord) to reconcile them to each other in the same act and by the bond of the very same interest which reconciles them to British government. — EDMUND BURKE.

(*g*) Relation of cause and effect

Those who accepted the traditional views of the world and of religion, and opposed change, were quite justified in suspecting that scientific investigation would sooner or later make them trouble. It taught men to distrust, and even to scorn, the past which furnished so many instances of ignorance and gross superstition. Instead of accepting the teachings of the theologians, both Catholic and Protestant, that mankind through Adam's fall was rendered utterly vile, and incapable (except through God's special grace) of good thoughts or deeds, certain thinkers began to urge that man was by nature good; that he should freely use his own God-given reason; that he was capable of becoming increasingly wise by a study of nature's laws, and that he could indefinitely better his own condition and that of his fellows if he would but free himself from the shackles of error and superstition. Those who had broadened their views of mankind and of the universe came to believe that God had revealed himself not only to the Jewish people but also, in greater or less degree, to all his creatures in all ages and in all parts of a boundless universe where everything was controlled by his immutable laws. — J. A. ROBINSON and C. A. BEARD.

(*h*) Combination of methods

Nature seems to have apportioned the voices of many of her creatures with sensitive regard for their environment. [Generalization.] Sombre voices seem fittingly to be associated with subdued light, and joyous notes with the blaze of sunlit twigs and open meadows. [Repetition, contrast.] A bobolink's bubbling carol is unthinkable in a jungle, and the strain of a wood pewee on a sunny hillside would be like an organ playing dance-music. [Illustration, contrast.] This is even more pronounced in the

tropics, where, quite aside from any mental association on my part, the voices and calls of the jungle reflect the qualities of that twilight world. [Repetition.] The poor-me-one proves too much. He is the very essence of night, his wings edged with velvet silence, his plumage the mingled concentration of moss and lichens and dead wood. [Illustration.]

— William Beebe.

Exercise 1

Paragraph division

Apply the principles of paragraph division to the following passages. Give the reasons for your paragraph division.

1. "Peggotty," says I suddenly, "were you ever married?" "Lord, Master Davy," replied Peggotty. "What's put marriage in your head?" She answered with such a start that it quite awoke me. And then she stopped in her work, and looked at me, with her needle drawn out to its thread's length. "But *were* you ever married, Peggotty?" says I. "You are a very handsome woman, an't you?" I thought her in a different style from my mother, certainly; but of another school of beauty, I considered her a perfect example. There was a red velvet footstool in the best parlour, on which my mother had painted a nosegay. The groundwork of that stool and Peggotty's complexion appeared to me to be one and the same thing. The stool was smooth, and Peggotty was rough, but that made no difference. "Me handsome, Davy!" said Peggotty. "Lawk, no, my dear! But what put marriage in your head?" "I don't know! You mustn't marry more than one person at a time, may you, Peggotty?" "Certainly not," says Peggotty, with the promptest decision.

— Dickens.

2. "Dear Sister, I haven't had much time to write. But the news is that Dad got a contract out at Alder Point. Jim Usher and I went out to Bridgeville with Dad. When Dad was surveying, we target-practiced. How are you getting along? Please send me some foreign stamps. The place is as dead as a door-nail; so I cannot tell you very much. Love, Frank Green. P.S. Don't forget the stamps." There it was again — stamps! They were his latest interest when I left home in September. He could

not even write a letter without bringing in stamps! And I had a suspicion that that was his object in writing the letter — to get stamps. So he was still at it. I could close my eyes and see a room full of boys, and stamps. Stamps everywhere: stamps on the table, on the couch, on the chairs, and on the floor. Every floor in the house was covered with them. And no one dared sweep them up. Heavens, no! Why, some of them were worth a thousand dollars! Why didn't he sell them, then, if he could get so much as that for them? Well, for cat's sake, a fellow couldn't sell them till the c'lector came around, could he? Where was the collector and when was he coming? Oh, he was somewhere and he'd be along some day. Gee, girls were a nuisance, always asking questions. Stupids! Never could understand anything, anyway. So the nuisance found it better not to interfere; and the stamps remained unmolested. Every night the bunch would come trooping in, and gather in the den with their stamps and stamp albums. "Hey, Green, I'll trade you a Guatemala for that Santo Domingo. You've got two of them anyway." "Well, I hope to tell you I won't! What are you trying to pull? Guatemalas only market for five dollars, and I can get ten for this, any old day, and I don't mean may be." Sometimes the argument became so heated as to necessitate a little interference from the nuisance. The battle would subside for a time and then break out afresh, rising higher and higher, until the nuisance would decide it was time for intervention again. I didn't send any stamps, and neither have I received another letter. It was almost nine months ago that the stamp hobby was in full swing; so I suspect that it is over now. I shall be glad if it is, but I am not letting myself become too elated. One cannot with a thirteen-year-old brother.

Paragraph division

Exercise 2

Paragraph unity

Decide whether each of the following paragraphs is unified. If it is unified, you should find in the paragraph, or be able to formulate, a topic sentence. (See Rule 20.)

1. Blessed is he who has found his work; let him ask no other blessedness. He has a work, a life-purpose; he has

Paragraph unity

found it, and will follow it! How, as a free-flowing channel, dug and torn by noble force through the sour mud-swamp of one's existence, like an ever-deepening river there, it runs and flows; — draining-off the scur festering water, gradually from the root of the remotest grass-blade; making, instead of pestilential swamp, a green fruitful meadow with its clear-flowing stream. How blessed for the meadow itself, let the stream and its value be great or small! Labor is Life: from the inmost heart of the Worker rises his god-given Force, the sacred celestial Life-essence breathed into him by Almighty God; from his inmost heart awakens him to all nobleness, — to all knowledge, 'self-knowledge' and much else, so soon as Work fitly begins. Knowledge? The knowledge that will hold good in working, cleave thou to that; for Nature herself accredits that, says Yea to that. Properly thou hast no other knowledge but what thou hast got by working: the rest is yet all a hypothesis of knowledge; a thing to be argued of in schools, a thing floating in the clouds, in endless logic-vortices, till we try it and fix it. 'Doubt, of whatever kind, can be ended by Action alone.' — CARLYLE.

2. Life is filled with many hard and discouraging days, but I am convinced that the most discouraging of days are those when my rhetoric assignment book reads, "March 3, (Wed.) — Theme 5; 450–600 words on a subject arising from the essays on education." Would that Montaigne and Milton, who are really the instigators of this crime, could but know my resentment! I am one of those unfortunate persons who is unable to sit down and conscientiously scratch off a six-hundred-word theme in the length of time that it takes to write out each of those four thousand and six hundred letters that go to make such a theme. What I am striving to prove to my reader is that I am in a class of students in this university from whose brains it is no more possible to wring words than to tap syrup from a maple tree unless the words and the maple syrup happen to be there. Now, it goes unsaid that the only time one can get the maple syrup from the maple tree is in the early spring of the year — the right season for tapping trees. As with the tree, so with my head. I cannot get theme matter from my block of wood if it is

Paragraph unity

the wrong season. I have "crabbed" to instructors about the limited number of theme subjects until, if they do not deem me as being temperamental, they must believe me to be another one of those anything-for-an-excuse persons. But if they could only know how, when an assigned subject happens to "hit home," I fairly itch to get to the old pen and paper to sketch off that theme before I lose the inspiration. It seems to me that the only way in which I can account for my trouble and the trouble of the others is that we are temperamental. Until now I have always held that only geniuses are temperamental. Manifestations of genius in my young life were Willie Potter, who could play "The Rosary" on the xylophone when he was only in the eighth grade, and little Mary Dalton, who studied in Chicago every summer at the Glenn Dillard Gunn School of Music before she reached her teens. "Ah, they are geniuses!" people remarked, but I thought that they were peculiar — peculiar in the sense that they were not quite bright in their studies and received their high school diplomas for what should have been pay-checks for winning silver cups for the school in state high school musical contests. How our senior class snickered when our geniuses received their diplomas on graduation day, but we have to take back a little, for I read in the home town *Gazette*, which was around my clothes in last week's laundry kit, that little Mary Dalton is being presented to Chicago musicians by Glenn Dillard Gunn himself next Tuesday night. So much for temperamental geniuses who can get through life playing pianos without having to write six-hundred-word themes that have to be in at nine o'clock on a Wednesday morning.

3. The college, if it is to be a real exponent of a liberal education, must resist vigorously the modern tendency toward extra-curricular activities of one kind and another. Athletics, literary societies, college journalism, homecomings, all of them have their place, all are valuable within limits; but they must never be permitted to be substituted for what President Wilson called the "main show" of education. I am fully convinced that university athletics as now organized is detrimental to education and scholarship. Our own stadium, costing about $2,000,000,

seating about 70,000 persons, is for several months of the year the center of university interest and activity. Vast throngs are attracted to our little community, but no one in the crowds has any thought for the real function of the university. The wildest demonstrations of loyalty for the team and for the institution are aroused, but not a spark of intellectual curiosity. A college must be built on something more substantial than college songs, class cheers, and sentimental loyalty.

Exercise 3

Unity, coherence, and emphasis

(*a*) State the topic sentences for the following paragraphs. (*b*) Show how the material in the paragraphs is made coherent and emphatic. (*c*) Point out the various methods by which the paragraphs are developed.

1. The American people, more than any other people, is composed of individuals who have lost association with their old landmarks. They have crossed an ocean, they have spread themselves across a new continent. The American who still lives in his grandfather's house feels almost as if he were living in a museum. There are few Americans who have not moved at least once since their childhood, and even if they have stayed where they were born, the old landmarks themselves have been carted away to make room for progress. That, perhaps, is one reason why we have so much more Americanism than love of America. It takes time to learn to love the new gas station which stands where the wild honeysuckle grew. Moreover, the great majority of Americans have risen in the world. They have moved out of their class, lifting the old folks along with them perhaps, so that together they may sit by the steam pipes, and listen to the crooning of the radio. But more and more of them have moved not only out of their class, but out of their culture; and then they leave the old folks behind, and the continuity of life is broken. For faith grows well only as it is passed on from parents to their children amidst surroundings that bear witness, because nothing changes radically, to a deep permanence in the order of the world. It is true, no doubt, that in this great physical and psychic migration some of the old household gods are carefully packed up and put with the rest of the luggage, and then unpacked and set

Unity, coherence, and emphasis

up on new altars in new places. But what can be taken along is at best no more than the tree which is above the ground. The roots remain in the soil where first they grew. — Walter Lippmann.

2. Punishment is a blessed thing. I pity the young who have grown up without it. I pity the old, the masters and the mistresses of households, whom nobody dares to contradict, who are never, never put into the corner or whipped as they deserve. I pity the kings and emperors who have gone murderous-mad because no one stood up to them or made them behave themselves. But punishment is of no positive value; only negative. For any positive help towards living a nobler life, apart from the influence of friendship and of education, I can only fall back on that real and widespread possession of the human race of which we have already spoken: that instinct which shows itself in the existence of the Internal Censor. It is an instinct both moral and aesthetic, which rejects things both because they are bad and because they are ugly, and pursues things both because they are good and because they are beautiful. Philosophers insist on drawing a distinction between these two, but I confess that I never can feel it very real. As far as I can analyze my own feelings, I should say that the motive which keeps me from a bad action is a feeling that as I contemplate it I do not like the look of it or the smell of it. I feel it to be ugly or foul or not decent — not the sort of thing with which I want to be associated. And, similarly, the thing that nerves me towards a good but difficult action is a feeling that it seems beautiful or fine, the sort of thing that I love as I look at it and would like to have for my own. Though not infallible, this moral or aesthetic instinct is a true fact. I believe it to be generally very strong in young people, at any rate in those who have real life in them, and, though often misdirected while they make their usual experiments, it has a way of correcting its own errors and ultimately finding its right course. It, and perhaps it alone, answers the most troublesome of all questions which the cynic can put to the moralist: "Granted that it is useful to society that I should be honest, why should I mind about society if I can find my own profit in stealing?" — Gilbert Murray, *Harper's Magazine*, January, 1930.

THE COMPOSITION AS A WHOLE

Unity

The general principle

176. A composition should treat a single subject. If the composition can be summarized fully in one unified sentence or paragraph, it is a unified composition.

The following composition is an example of the violation of unity by failure to hold to one subject:

Our Trip up Spruce Creek

While I was in Port Orange, Mr. Doty, the proprietor of the hotel there, took some of his guests five miles up Spruce Creek on a launch. It was the third of February. As the boat steamed up the creek, we stood on the deck, some of us taking pictures and others shooting at alligators with revolvers. The alligators are of all sizes. Sometimes you will see one seven or eight feet long, lying on the bank in the sunshine. As the boat goes past, he slides into the water and swims away with only his head above the water. When we have gone a little farther, we see another alligator about four feet long, with ten or twelve little ones crawling over her back.

When the launch has gone about five miles, it stops at the wharf of an orange grove. Here the passengers are allowed to take all the oranges they want. After they have walked about the grove for a while, they have a picnic dinner, and then start back.

The writer of this meandering composition keeps to his subject — a trip which he took up Spruce Creek on February 3 — for only three sentences. He shifts to a different subject after the third sentence — the Spruce Creek trips in general — and throughout the rest of the composition forgets all about "our trip."

Unity may be given to this composition (*a*) by making it entirely a narrative, dealing with the trip of February 3; or (*b*) by making it, throughout, a general discussion of the Spruce Creek picnics provided by Mr. Doty.

Relevant material loosely connected with the main idea

177. Relevant material must be so expressed that its relevancy may not be doubted. Relevant material may be so loosely connected with the main idea that its relationship to the main idea may not be clear to the reader. The placing of this material at the beginning of the composition is especially unfortunate, for it may mislead the reader into thinking that it is the main idea. Either it should be more fully developed so that its relationship to the main idea is clear, or it should be so placed that it will not divert the reader's attention from the main idea, or it should be omitted altogether.

> Misleading: A composition on the Non-Partisan League begins with this sentence: "Mr. A. C. Townley, the founder of the Non-Partisan League, was thrown into prison for ninety days for criticising the conduct of the war." The incident is dropped here and the composition then discusses the history and organization of the Non-Partisan League. From the first sentence, however, the reader might conclude that the main idea of the composition is the lawlessness of the members of the League.

Too big a subject

178. A very small composition on a very large subject — such as Character, Patriotism, Selfishness, Advertising, The Waste of Energy — usually violates the principle of unity. It usually consists of a number of brief scraps of discussion, each dealing with a different division of the subject. The divisions of so large a subject are themselves large; the composition therefore reads like a fragmentary and disconnected treat-

ment of a number of distinct subjects, not like a connected treatment of one.

When a short composition is to be written on a big subject, it is best to choose some single, well-defined phase of the subject. For example, choose the subjects in the left column rather than those in the right.

Limited	*General*
The Difference between Character and Reputation.	Character
The Work of Patriotic Women during the World War.	Patriotism
Selfishness in the Conduct of Students toward their Parents.	Selfishness
Advertising as a Necessary Measure of Self-Defense.	Advertising
The Value of a Daily Schedule.	The Waste of Time
How Students' Adversities aid them toward Success.	Success

Coherence

The general principle

179. To make a composition effective, proceed by a definite plan. Even good thoughts and interesting statements will not be effective if the writer sets them down haphazard, just as they occur to him; they must be organized into a whole. To get good organization, a writer must proceed by a definite plan; that is, he must, before he begins to write, or at least before he puts the composition into its final form, decide on a few topics, and on each topic write a passage constituting a unit of the whole composition. As in warfare a band of men, though strong and brave individually, is collectively weak if it is not well organized, so a speech, a report, an editorial, an essay, any composition, though its parts may be forcible or clever, is weak as a whole if it is not well organized. (See Rule **194.**)

For example, a composition on Denver consists of a short paragraph on each of the following topics:

1. Location.
2. History.
3. Local pride.
4. Water supply (derived from mountain snow).
5. Capitol and United States mint.
6. Museums.
7. Principal business.
8. Dwelling houses (none built of wood).
9. Schools.
10. Wealth of citizens.
11. The city as a health resort.
12. Churches.
13. Strange spectacle of men skating in winter in their shirtsleeves.

This production, however interesting its material, is as far from being a good composition as two wheels, a diamond frame, a chain, and a pair of handle bars, all piled in a heap, are from being a good bicycle. It is a series of haphazard remarks not organized into a whole. There is no reason for most of the parts' standing where they are — no reason, *e.g.*, for discussing public buildings after the water supply, or skaters' costumes after churches. The material of this composition may be organized into a whole by the method shown in the following outline. The numbers within the brackets refer to parts of the preceding outline.

I. History. [2]
II. Location and climate. [Put 1 and 13 here — 13 as an illustration of the statements about the climate.]
III. Especially striking peculiarities of the city.
    1. Evidences of its being a health resort. [11]
    2. Absence of wooden buildings. [8]
    3. Public buildings. [5]

4. Water supply. [4]
5. Most striking of all — local pride. [3]

IV. Conditions of the people's life.
   1. Economic: Principal occupations. General wealth. [7 and 10]
   2. Educational and moral: Schools, museums, churches. [9, 6, and 12]

Passages misplaced

180. Material belonging to one part of a composition should not be placed carelessly in another part.

In the following paragraph, the italicized sentence is evidently misplaced:

The physical training department is very good and is constantly improving. *A good gymnasium for the women is greatly needed, to replace the present unsatisfactory makeshift.* As I am more acquainted with the work of the girls, I shall confine myself to the physical training provided for them.

The italicized sentence does not belong in this introductory part, but in a subsequent part; *viz.*, that which discusses the equipment for the girls' exercise.

Coherent beginning

181. The opening sentences of a formal composition should be self-explanatory; they should be clear to the reader without reference to the title of the composition.

Bad:

LAMPS

They are contrivances for furnishing artificial light. . . .

Right:

LAMPS

Lamps are contrivances for furnishing artificial light. . . .

Bad:

MY WORK DURING THE PAST TERM

Latin and German were more difficult than any other studies. . . .

Right:

MY WORK DURING THE PAST TERM

In my work during the past term, I had more difficulty with Latin and German than with any other studies.

Distinct introduction of a new part

182. The beginning of a new division, either of a whole composition or of a paragraph, should be clearly marked. Otherwise the reader may begin reading the new division supposing that the preceding division still continues. For marking the beginning of a new part, the following are useful means:

Transition sentence or paragraph

(*a*) A transitional sentence or group of sentences, such as the following:

So much for the amount of free time which the student has. It remains to discuss the use he makes of it.

The willingness of the faculty to allow student self-government is, then, unquestionable. But are the students equally willing to govern themselves?

Connective or transitional words and phrases

(*b*) Connective words, phrases, and other expressions. (See Appendix D.)

Addition: *then, then too, again, next, too, also, further, moreover, another cause of, equally important with the preceding, first, secondly, finally,* etc.

Addition with intensification: *even, perhaps.*

Repetition: *in fact, indeed, in other words.*

Exemplification: *for example, for instance, thus.*

Comparison: *similarly, likewise.*

Purpose: *to this end, for this purpose, having this in view.*

Resumption after a digression: *well, now, thus.*

Consequence: *therefore, accordingly, hence, consequently, in consequence of the foregoing, for this reason, it follows that, the result is.*

Abatement: *to be sure*; *I admit*; *there is, to be sure, an exception . . .*

Contrast: *but, yet, in spite of, on the contrary, on the other hand, nevertheless, however.*

Placing key words at the beginning

(*c*) Placing near the beginning of the first sentence of the new division the word or words that indicate the subject of the new division. For example, after discussing the abuses of college athletics, to begin a new division with the words "The remedy . . ." makes the change of topic immediately evident. After discussing a statesman's foreign policy, to begin a new division with the words "His internal administration . . ." makes the change of topic immediately evident.

Ineffective pronouns

(*d*) It is usually ineffective to use a pronoun in place of its antecedent in the topic sentence of a paragraph.

For example, in a theme on the effect of the university upon the freshman, the third paragraph begins with this topic sentence: "This is broadened beyond its narrow sphere in high school." *This* refers to a remote antecedent, *the student's point of view.* The whole paragraph would have been made more effective if the topic sentence had read: "The student's point of view is broadened beyond its narrow sphere in high school."

Coherence of a contradiction

183. Lack of connective words or sentences between a statement and a contradiction of it is especially apt to cause incoherence.

Incoherent: Some people think clerking is an easy job and that a clerk ought never to be tired. Clerks stay closely housed day after day, working from six in the morning to ten at night. . . .

Coherent [the necessary connective is supplied]:

Some people think the occupation of a clerk is easy and that a clerk ought never to be tired. This is not the case. In the first place, clerks stay closely housed day after day, etc.

Shifting the tense in narrative

184. In reproducing a story (*e.g.*, the story of *Macbeth*) or in composing a story, do not shift carelessly between the present and the past tenses. Decide at the beginning which tense to use, and use it consistently; ordinarily, prefer the past tense. (See Rules 47 and 129.)

Shifting the point of view in narrative

185. If in a story the narrator tells what he saw or had a part in, the introduction of events or speeches or thoughts which he could not have seen or heard or known violates coherence.

Thus the italicized part of the following extract violates coherence:

I strolled down to the boat-house at six o'clock yesterday evening. As I got there a row-boat was approaching the wharf containing a man and a girl who I judged must have arrived from the country very recently. *They had started for Picnic Point at two o'clock. On the way the young man had had great difficulty at the unfamiliar work of rowing. Often his oars would slip and send a shower of water into the girl's lap, at which he would say, "Oh, I am so sorry!" and she would reply, "Oh, that's all right." . . . As they neared the wharf, he was anxiously wondering whether he could land without accident.* Jimmy, the keeper of the boat-house, stood ready to assist at the disembarkation. . . .

A story in which coherence is thus violated may be corrected (*a*) by omitting all events, speeches, and thoughts of which the narrator could not, according to his own account, have been aware at the time they took place (*e.g.*, omitting the italicized passage in the story quoted); (*b*) by introducing all such events, speeches, and thoughts as having been learned by the

narrator after they took place (*e.g.*, making the oarsman in the story just quoted tell the narrator, in a subsequent conversation, what is improperly related in the italicized passage); or (*c*) by omitting all reference to the narrator — telling everything impersonally (*e.g.*, omitting from the story quoted all preceding the italicized part and continuing without any reference to the narrator).

Shifting the tense in description

186. In description introduced by narrative in the past tense, maintain the tense throughout the composition. Carelessly shifting to the present tense changes the point of view and weakens coherence. (Cf. Rules 47 and 129.)

Shifting from point of view of one person to that of another

187. Do not change the point of view of a composition or of a passage by shifting carelessly from *I* to *one*, from *we* to *the observer*, from *you* to *a person*, etc. Keep consistently to one point of view unless there is good reason for changing. (Cf. Rule 131.)

Wrong: You seldom meet such people, but when one does, he should be on his guard against them.
Right: You seldom meet such people, but when you do, you should be on your guard against them.

Emphasis

General principle

188. If a composition is coherently arranged and clearly expressed, emphasis of the more important ideas or expressions will usually follow. But there are a number of special devices or ways by which emphasis is obtained.

Transitional phrases

189. Emphasis may be obtained by the use of phrases which directly state the importance of the material; as, for example, such phrases as: "The

most important point of all is . . ."; "Emphasis must be put upon this fact . . ."; etc.

Proportion

190. Emphasis may be obtained by giving greater space to more important material. This is a matter of proportion. For example, Huxley in his essay on *Science and Culture*, in which he defends a scientific education against its two opponents, the practical man and the classical scholar, devotes approximately five and one-half pages to the practical man and twelve and one-half pages to the classical scholar.

Position

191. Emphasis may be obtained by putting important material at the beginning and at the end. Especially important is the end. In his essay on *The Three Hypotheses Respecting the History of Nature*, Huxley discusses first and second the hypotheses that he shows later to be lacking in scientific proof, and last he discusses the hypothesis of evolution, which to him is the valid explanation of the universe.

NOTE. — Coherence must not be sacrificed to gain emphasis. If clearness demands that the material be presented in a certain order, that order must be followed regardless of whether important points come first or last.

Suspense

192. Emphasis may be obtained by creating suspense; that is, withholding the important fact until the end. For example, J. B. S. Haldane, in his essay *On Being the Right Size* (Scott and Zeitlin, *College Readings in English Prose*, p. 77), presents many illustrations to prove that for every type of animal there is a most convenient size and that a large change in size inevitably carries with it a change in form. Not until the end of the essay does the important idea come; namely, that just as there is a best size for every animal, so there is a best size for human institu-

tions and that a large nation cannot become a completely socialized state.

Climax

193. Emphasis may be obtained by arranging details in climactic order; that is, putting the more important and more forceful details after the less important details. Climax is closely allied to suspense. (See Rule 192.)

Outlines

Outlines

194. An outline is an orderly plan of the material to be used in a composition. The material is condensed into topics, sentences, or paragraphs, so numbered and indented as to show their logical relationship. There are, therefore, three kinds of outlines: topic, sentence, and paragraph outlines. (Throughout an outline, the writer must adhere to one type consistently.) The topic and the sentence outlines are more commonly used. Of these two the sentence outline is to be preferred, for it states more explicitly the writer's thought. (Compare the two outlines given below.)

Nouns preferable to verbs in topic outline

In a topic outline, give all the topics, as far as possible, the form of nouns, with or without modifiers. *E.g.*, write "Rapidity of Movement" rather than "Moves Rapidly." Also, as far as possible, make the topics parallel in form. The writer often forgets the form of his first topics by the time he has reached his third or fourth topics.

Wrong:

I. Powers of the Senate as a separate house.
   - A. To confirm appointments.
   - B. To ratify treaties.
   - C. Trial of impeachments.
   - D. Adopting its own rules of procedure.
   - E. Electing its own officers (except its presiding officer).

Right:

I. Powers of the Senate as a separate house.
   A. To confirm appointments.
   B. To ratify treaties.
   C. To try impeachments.
   D. To adopt its own rules of procedure.
   E. To elect its own officers (except its presiding officer).

Sentence outline

In making a sentence outline, write each division in the form of a sentence which expresses the central idea of the division. Subheads may be expressed as subordinate members of this sentence, or as separate sentences.

THE GOVERNMENT OF SWITZERLAND

Topic Outline

Specimen topic outline

I. Value to Americans of a knowledge of Swiss institutions.
II. The legislative department.
   A. The National Council.
      1. Apportionment.
      2. Elections.
   B. The Council of States
      1. Apportionment.
      2. Elections.
   C. Powers of the legislature.
III. The executive department.
   A. Organization.
   B. Executive powers. — Comparison of Swiss and American executives.
IV. The judicial department: the constitutional court.
   A. Organization.
   B. Judicial powers. — Comparison of Swiss and American judiciaries.

THE GOVERNMENT OF SWITZERLAND

Sentence Outline

Specimen sentence outline

I. Knowledge of Swiss institutions is of value to Americans.

II. The legislative department consists of a bicameral legislature, called the Federal Assembly, composed of the National Council and the Council of States.
   A. The National Council, the more numerous branch, represents the people.
      1. It consists of one member for each 20,000 persons, with at least one member from each canton or half-canton.
      2. Members are elected for three years, by popular vote.
   B. The Council of States, the less numerous branch, represents the cantons.
      1. It consists of two members from each canton, and one from each half-canton.
      2. The method of election, term, and qualification are prescribed by each canton itself.
   C. The legislature is the supreme authority in the state, and has all powers not reserved to the people or to the cantons, and not granted to any other body.

III. The executive department consists of a Federal Council of seven members, elected by the Federal Assembly for three years.
   A. One member of the Federal Council is designated by the Federal Assembly to act as Federal President for one year; each of the seven members acts as head of an executive department.
   B. The Federal Council is subordinate to the Federal Assembly, and its powers are not comparable to those of the American executive; the Federal President is merely a presiding officer with no independent powers of importance.

IV. The judicial department consists of a Federal Court of twenty-four judges, elected by the Federal Assembly for six years.

A. For ordinary purposes the court sits in small divisions.
B. Its jurisdiction is largely constitutional, though in this respect it is not so powerful as the American Supreme Court.

System of numbering and lettering

195. The following system of numbering and lettering the topics and subtopics is commonly used. (See outline in Rule 194.)

I.
  A.
  B.
    1.
    2.
      a.
      b.
      c.
        (1)
        (2)
          (*a*)
          (*b*)
II. etc.

There may be, of course, other methods; but whatever method is used, that one must be followed consistently throughout.

Proper alignment

196. Place all coördinate topics at the same distance from the left-hand margin. When there is not space enough on the line for the whole of the topic or sentence, that part left over should be indented two or three spaces to the right of the margin of its governing topic. The marginal line of a subtopic should never be the same as that of its governing topic. (See outline in Rules 194 and 350.)

Misuse of *Introduction* and *Conclusion*

197. Do not entitle the first division *Introduction* nor the last *Conclusion* unless their material is distinct from the body.

Wrong outline for an account of a sleighride:

I. Introduction: the start.
II. The journey out.
III. Conclusion: the return.

Right:

I. Introduction: winter in Dakota.
II. The start.
III. The journey out.
IV. The return.
V. Conclusion: comparison of sleighing and other sports.

Body or *Discussion* not to be used

198. Do not use the title *Body* or *Discussion;* place the topics belonging to the body, or discussion, of an essay flush with the left-hand margin, as in the topic outline under section 194.

Over-minuteness

199. Do not indicate minute and unimportant divisions.

Bad:

I. Situation of building.
  A. In Ames County.
  B. On a hill.
  C. Facing east.

Right:

I. Situation of building.

Certain Illogical Practices

More than one subtopic necessary

200. As a rule, each topic that is subdivided should have at least two subheads; it is impossible to subdivide a thing into less than two parts. If the topic has only one subtopic, the subtopic should usually (*a*) be joined to the governing topic, (*b*) be omitted, or (*c*) be supplemented by other subtopics.

I. Ancestors.
    A. Scotch.
II. Birthplace.
    A. Farm in Indiana.

Right: (*a*)

I. Scotch ancestors.
II. Birthplace: description of the Indiana farm. (See also topics III, B, and IV in the topic outline in section 194.)

Bad:

I. Founding of the city.
    A. By Dionysius Jones.
II. Its principal industry.
    A. Piano manufacturing.

Right: (*b*) and (*a*)

I. Founding of the city.
II. Principal industry, piano manufacturing.

Bad:

I. Situation.
    A. Advantages.

Right: (*a*)

I. Situation: its advantages.

Also right: (*c*)

I. Situation.
    A. Geographical location.
    B. Advantages.
II. Attempts to destroy it.
    A. Why they failed.

Right: (*c*)

II. Attempts to destroy it.
    A. The first attempt.
    B. The attempt of 1901.
    C. Reason for the failure of all attempts.

NOTE. — A topic may have only one subhead if the subhead is an example, illustration, or reference, none of which is, strictly speaking, a subdivision.

Right:

I. Extension of Mohammedan power under the early caliphs.

A. Eastward and northward.
   1. For example, Persian and Greek lands.

B. Westward.
   1. For example, Syria, Egypt, and northern Africa.

Subheads to cover field of governing topic

201. Each group of subheads, taken together, should sufficiently cover the field stated in their governing topic. If they do not, the fault may be remedied either by (*a*) making the governing title narrower, or by (*b*) adding to the subheads.

Wrong:

I. Powers of the Senate as a separate house.
   A. To confirm appointments.
   B. To ratify treaties.
   C. To try impeachments.

Right: (*a*)

I. Principal powers of the Senate as a separate house.
   A. To confirm appointments.
   B. To ratify treaties.
   C. To try impeachments.

Right: (*b*)

I. Powers of the Senate as a separate house.
   A. To confirm appointments.
   B. To ratify treaties.
   C. To try impeachments.
   D. To adopt its own rules of procedure.
   E. To elect its own officers (except its presiding officer).

Overlapping topics

202. Topics must not overlap; they must be mutually exclusive. Overlapping, an error in logic, is often due to the fact that the basis of subdivision is changed. For example, in the following subtopics, the basis for subdivision is changed from a geographical to a chronological basis. Hence some material would have to be discussed twice.

Wrong:

I. Literature in the United States.
   A. Literature of New England.
   B. Literature of the South.
   C. Colonial literature.
   D. Literature to 1860.

Right:

I. Literature in the United States. (Geographical basis of subdivision.)
   A. Literature of New England.
   B. Literature of the South.
   C. Literature of the Middle West, etc.

Right:

I. Literature in the United States. (Chronological basis of subdivision.)

Right:

I. Literature in the United States. (Chronological basis of subdivision.)
   A. Colonial literature.
   B. Literature to 1860.
   C. Literature of the Civil War, etc.

203. Do not write as a subtopic what is logically coordinate with the preceding topic.

Coördinate title written like a subtopic

Bad [The rule is violated in titles II, 1, and II, 1, *a*]:

I. The departure.
II. The arrival in the city.
   A. Journey to the store.
      1. Purchases.
III. Return home.

Right:

I. Departure.
II. Arrival in the city.
III. Journey to the store.
IV. Purchases.
V. Return.

Also right:

I. Departure.
II. Experiences in the city.
   A. Arrival.

B. Journey to the store.
C. Purchases.
III. Return.

Subtopic written like a coördinate title

204. Do not place a subtopic coördinate with its governing topic.

Bad [The rule is violated in title II]:

I. Disadvantages of football.
A. Physical harm.
B. Distraction from studies.
II. Encouragement of gambling.

Right:

I. Disadvantages of football.
A. Physical harm.
B. Distraction from studies.
C. Encouragement of gambling.

Main title written like subtopic

205. Do not write the topic of the composition like the topic of a division.

Bad:

I. Shipbuilding in Maine.
A. Introduction.
B. Principal seats.
C. Methods.
etc.

Right:

SHIPBUILDING IN MAINE

I. Introduction.
II. Principal seats.
III. Methods.
etc.

EXERCISE 1

Unity

Discuss the suitability of the following subjects for 500-word expositions. If you find the subjects too large, suggest subdivisions that might be treated in 500-word themes.

1. The limitation of armaments
2. Representative government
3. The Federal Reserve Banking system
4. Relieving unemployment

5. Earning one's way through college — Unity
6. Modern poetry
7. How a large business enterprise is managed
8. Road building
9. Religion
10. Training for the track team
11. The French Revolution
12. Early American magazines
13. Culture
14. Managing a summer camp
15. American newspapers
16. The commercializing of football
17. The place of jazz in American music

Exercise 2

Rewrite the following theme, making it unified and coherent, and indicating the necessary paragraph divisions. — Unity and coherence

Hazards of Flying

Aviation is in its beginnings and we really do not know how safe flying is. There are only ten thousand planes in licensed commercial industry in the United States. Most people still distrust flight, but curiosity is slowly overcoming this distrust. The hazards of flying are not so many as formerly. Bills have been passed compelling aviators and airships to meet certain requirements. The airplane must be built of light, but sound and lasting framework. Girders of light wood also help in making the plane safer. The gas in the gas cells must be light, strong, and impermeable. The engine must be adequate in power and reliability. Airplane behavior is studied so that improvements can be made. Some planes have slotted wings which are automatically controlled. Wing slots can prevent a spin by flapping open and increasing the lift on the lower wing. If a plane has a slot that opens automatically, the plane is much safer. There is more to the safety of flying than the construction of the plane. The pilot is responsible for fifty per cent of the accidents occurring to airplanes. To be a safe flyer, the pilot must be quick to think, have good judgment, and experience. Most of the accidents caused by the pilot occur when the plane is in a spin. The spin is

Unity and coherence

dangerous because it affects the eyes. When a plane goes into a spin, the pilot's eyes begin to oscillate, and therefore when he has pushed the stick back, his eyes continue to oscillate until they make him believe that he is still in the spin. It is even more dangerous, because when in a spin the pilot cannot leave the plane in a parachute. The navy is carrying on experiments to fix a trap-door in the floor from which the pilot might drop. Some pilots try to do silly and dangerous stunts, which cause a great many accidents. Lindbergh is a good example of a pilot who never does fancy stunts. Flying in America is almost completely unregulated, and unregulated flying may be dangerous to the public as well as to the flyers. The Aeronautic Safety Code would help a great deal because it covers every phase of aircraft operation. This code has rules on fire prevention, ventilation, location of gasoline tanks, and requires a fire wall between the engine and the rest of the ship. In some planes code signals for landing places are given by an electric flasher. It is the impossibility of steady flight below what is known as the stalling speed that is the greatest source of danger to air travel today. When below this line, the plane will probably spin because of careless flying. Stalling means falling below the necessary speed to maintain flight. When a plane is trying to land on a narrow strip of ground, the engine may stall. A tri-motored plane is as susceptible to the hazards of high minimum speed as the single-engined plane. One can imagine how dangerous it is for a six-ton mass, traveling at a rate of fifty miles an hour, to crash to the ground. The tri-motored Ford plane crashed last spring at Newark and the Fokker F–32, the largest plane in the country, crashed also. The human element was held responsible in both cases. Accidents are due to two causes: plane and pilot. According to C. J. V. Murphy, engine failure is responsible for 20 per cent of the accidents; weather conditions, poor visibility, and darkness contribute 4 per cent; miscellaneous, 14 per cent; and human failure 50 per cent. Attempts have been made to lengthen the speed range of a plane by slots in the wing, and experiments with ornithopter and helicopter. If a plane is equipped properly with slots, the plane cannot be forced into a stall or spin. Airplanes equipped with these

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are slower, but safer at a low speed. Engineers are trying to increase the speed by experiments. Blind flying as in a fog is very dangerous. The crash of the tri-motored plane (T. A. T.) in Mexico shows that the problem is not solved. There are two solutions to the problem: first, to do away with fog over air-ports, which has not yet been accomplished; second, to develop better instruments and better control in flight. The most delicate instruments used in weather forecasting do not predict the appearance of fog. The best that aviators can do to judge fog conditions over the route which they travel is to calculate the relative possibility of fog according to the nature of the land surface which they cross, its proximity to bodies of water which may be large enough to affect the atmosphere, and the season's weather against what information the weather bureaus are able to give. It is evident, therefore, that the fog handicap prevails as a serious hazard at all air-ports and on all flying routes, at some time or other. The stability of planes and the radio have helped a great deal toward solving the problem of fog. A plane can call for its position every ten minutes or so by radio beacons. A stable plane is one which when disturbed from flight in equilibrium will automatically return to equilibrium. According to engineers of the Guggenheim Fund, the theoretically safe plane should be able to fly steadily in gusty air, with controls untouched, for not less than five minutes. In 1927, 40 per cent of all of the fatal accidents to army planes were due to spins, and in the last five years, 45 per cent of navy airplane accidents have been due to the same cause. Pilots are not entrusted with passengers unless they have passed medical tests and have had at least two hundred hours of flight experience. During 1928, there were only eighty-five accidents involving aircraft operating over regular routes. This was one death for every 500,000 miles of such flying. The reason for this was the superior organization, technic, and the engines. These pilots do not take chances with the weather, or the plane itself. The usual accidents to airplanes are caused by collisions in full flight with other aircraft, collisions in full flight with other than aircraft, tail-spins, forced landings, landing accidents, take-off accidents, and fires in the air.

Exercise 3

Outlining

Revise the following outlines, giving reasons for your changes.

1. Aviation Has Conquered Fog

Thesis: The dangerous feat of handling an airplane in fog, an ever-threatening hazard in air travel, and a most baffling hazard of all modes of travel, has been performed successfully; this marks the most important accomplishment attained up to the present time by the Guggenheim Safety Fund Association.

I. The handling of an airplane in fog has been a most hazardous accomplishment.
   - A. The pilot is unable to keep plane on even keel.
   - B. He loses his course of travel and sense of direction.
   - C. His altimeter has been inadequately delicate to assure landing without crashing.
   - D. Fog signals at air-ports cannot be discerned by the pilot in time for him to use them to advantage.
     1. The drumming of the motor prevents the possibility of his hearing fog-horn signals.
     2. Beacon lights cannot be distinguished by the human eye, but can be detected by the visual radio receiver.

II. Fog is a handicap which prevails at some time or another, at all air-ports and on all flying routes.
   - A. Fog prevails along the coast.
   - B. To be encountered in mountainous regions.
   - C. To be expected near large bodies of water, such as the Great Lakes.
   - D. Fog occurs with sudden changes of weather.

III. Fog in air travel is a handicap which is greater than that in any other kind of travel.
   - A. The right-hand side of the road is assigned to the automobile.
   - B. Open signals guide the trains on the railroad.

C. Fog horns and buoys warn the boat pilots. Outlining
D. The airplane pilot is unable to see or hear anything except his cockpit and engine, when in fog.
1. He is forced to continue traveling onward. Cannot stop.
2. He has the alternatives of making a "chance" landing or flying onward and upward to get above the fog if possible.

IV. Lieut. James H. Doolittle has accomplished the feat of "flying blind" successfully, which marks the most important "find" of the Guggenheim Safety Fund Association.
A. Lieut. Doolittle flew fifteen miles, taking off and landing safely, with a hood over the cockpit.
1. The artificial horizon enabled him to keep plane at even keel.
2. The short-range radio direction-beam enabled him to keep in the course.
3. A highly sensitive altimeter showed, within a few feet, his height above the ground.

V. Mr. Daniel Guggenheim announces this demonstration as eliminating the last great hazard to reliability of airplane travel.
A. Airplane travel is now independent of weather conditions.

2. The Rayon Industry

Thesis: Is the rayon industry supplanting the silk industry? What are the characteristics of rayon that qualify it to compete with silk?

I. It has always been a desire among men to reproduce by artificial means natural substances that, because of their scarcity or beauty, are estimated at a high value.
A. A French naturalist, in his effort to produce artifical silk, went so far as to produce a

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twisted ply yarn from spider thread, which was knit into stockings weighing only two and one-fourth ounces.

B. Later another Frenchman succeeded in his chemical experiment on the same subject.

II. Many improvements have been made since the time of Chardonnet's successful experiment.

A. One process is called the Cuprammonium and Viscose process.

B. There is also the Acetate process.

C. I shall not discuss either of these methods, for they will probably be tiresome and uninteresting.

III. Rayon has many characteristic properties, which I shall just mention.

A. There has been some discussion as to whether or not rayon is perishable.

B. Will it stand washing and ironing?

C. Varieties of rayon differ in their ability to turn water.

D. It is claimed that the rayon made by a certain process conducts the beneficial ultra-violet rays of the sunlight and excludes the harmful rays.

E. Cellulose acetate rayon is very resistant to dyes, and it has been necessary to develop special dyes to be used on it.

IV. The world needs new textile fibers.

A. With the increase in population and the rapid spread of civilization, there has been an expansion of the world's textile requirements.

B. This need will be more noticeable in a few years hence, for the European countries are rapidly recovering from the prostration caused by the war.

C. Rayon, an inexpensive substitute for silk, can fill the demand of many women who desire to wear silk but who cannot afford it.

V. The consumption of rayon is very extensive.
   A. In 1927 the consumption of rayon for the first time exceeded that of silk.
   B. There is also much discussion as to whether or not rayon will supplant the cotton industry.

VI. Rayon may be compared with natural silk in many ways.
   A. The two may be compared as to color and beauty.
   B. There is considerable difference in the strength of the two textiles.

Exercise 4

Outlining

The following topics were jotted down to be developed into an autobiography. From them make a topical outline for your own biography, first formulating a central idea, such as "my chief aim in life," "my ambition," or "my great interest." With this unifying thesis in mind, make the necessary rearrangements and subordinations, and add a sufficient number of subtopics to make your meaning clear. Indicate how you would apportion the space in a theme of 1500–2000 words.

I. My ancestors
II. My parents
III. My schooling
IV. My hobbies
V. Childhood experiences
VI. My companions
VII. My reading
VIII. The travelling I have done
IX. My ambitions
X. Teachers who have influenced me
XI. Tragedies in my life
XII. Good fortunes that have come to me
XIII. My home surroundings
XIV. Life in a small town (or country, or city)
XV. My character as I see it

Exercise 5

Outlining

Turn the topic outline that you made for the preceding exercise into a sentence outline.

Grammatical Agreement [1]

Agreement of subject and verb

206. A verb should agree in number with its subject.

Intervening words

(*a*) **Be careful not to make a verb agree with a word between it and the subject, instead of with the subject.**

Wrong: A new order of ideas and principles have been instituted.

Right: A new order of ideas and principles has been instituted.

Wrong: You, the chairman, is the one to present the case.

Right: You, the chairman, are the one to present the case.

Note. — The last example resembles the others in principle, although "one," the word which attracts the verb out of the plural into the singular, precedes the subject instead of following it.

Number of the subject not affected by *with*, etc.

(*b*) **Words joined to a subject by *with*, *together with*, *including*, *as well as*, or *no less than*, do not affect the number of the subject.**

Wrong: The captain, as well as the mate and the pilot, were frightened.

Right: The captain, as well as the mate and the pilot, was frightened.

Subjects joined by *and*

(*c*) **Two or more subjects joined by *and* require a plural verb.**

Note, however, that a compound subject designating the same person or thing takes a singular verb; and that a compound subject designating closely related ideas may take a singular verb.

[1] For definitions of grammatical terms, see Appendix B.

Right: The captain and the mate were frightened.
Right: My teacher and my friend [the same person] was ready to help me.
Right: His patience and perseverance was never failing.
Right: His patience and perseverance were never failing.

Subjects joined by *or* or *nor*

(*d*) **Two or more singular subjects joined by *or* or *nor* require a singular verb.**

Wrong: Neither he nor she are here.
Right: Neither he nor she is here.
Wrong: One or the other of those fellows have stolen it.
Right: One or the other of those fellows has stolen it.
Wrong: Every young man or woman is taken for what they really are.
Right: Every young man or woman is taken for what he or she really is.

Singular and plural substantives

(*e*) **When a subject is composed of both plural and singular substantives, joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the nearer.**

Wrong: Neither Jack nor the Smiths plays well.
Right: Neither Jack nor the Smiths play well.

There is and *there are*

(*f*) ***There is* should be followed by a singular noun; *there are*, by a plural noun or nouns.**

Wrong: There is too many people in this room.
Right: There are too many people in this room.

Collective nouns

(*g*) **A collective noun takes a singular verb when the group is thought of and a plural verb when the individuals are thought of.**

Right: The audience was gathering slowly.
Right: The audience were of different opinions about the play.
Right: The class has voted to increase its dues.
Right: The class have been consulted by letter regarding the proposed increase of dues.

NOTE. — This rule applies to such nouns as *number, remainder, rest,* etc.

Right: A number of boys have joined the various organizations in the school.

Right: The number of pages in the book is enough to discourage a reader.

Quantities, sums, multiples

(*h*) **Quantities and sums or multiples of numbers when expressing a single idea may take a singular verb.**

Right: Nine inches is one-fourth of a yard.
Right: Eight and three makes eleven.
Right: Eight times three is twenty-four.

NOTE. — The use of the plural verb in these instances could be justified.

(*i*) **Fractions, if they indicate a part of a single unit, take a singular verb; but if they indicate several members of a group, they take a plural verb.**

Right: Two-thirds of the text has been covered.
Right: One-third of the students have already gone home for vacation.

Number of a verb in a relative clause

(*j*) **In questions like *one of the men who, one of the things which, one of the people that,* the relative pronoun refers not to *one* but to the plural object of *of*. The relative pronoun is therefore plural.**

Wrong: He is one of those men who talks much and thinks little.
Right: He is one of those men who talk much and think little.

Incorrect agreement with a predicate noun

207. A verb agrees with its subject, not with its predicate noun.

Wrong: The main part of this machine are the large rollers.
Right: The main part of this machine is the large rollers.

Wrong: Oak, brass, and steel is the material of the structure.
Right: Oak, brass, and steel are the material of the structure.

Each, Every, etc.

208. *Each, every, either, neither, some one, somebody, any one, anybody, every one, everybody, no one, nobody, one* and *a person* are singular. Therefore, they are the subjects of singular verbs and the antecedents of singular pronouns. *None* is usually used with a plural verb, unless a singular idea is clearly intended; in that case *no one* is frequently substituted for *none*.

Wrong: Every one opened their window.
Right: Every one opened his window.

Wrong: Each of the suspected men were held.
Right: Each of the suspected men was held.

This rule holds, even with a compound subject.

Wrong: Each branch and twig were still.
Right: Each branch and twig was still.

NOTE. — To avoid awkward or artificial construction in correcting this fault, recasting the sentence is often advisable.

Wrong: Everybody there objected and declared they thought it barbarous.
Right but artificial: Everybody there objected and declared he thought it barbarous.
Right: All the people there objected and declared they thought it barbarous.

Agreement of adjective or pronoun with its substantive

209. An adjective or a pronoun agrees with the substantive that it modifies. Note that *kind*, *type*, *sort*, *class*, etc., are singular and should be modified by a singular demonstrative adjective.

Wrong: I like these kind of notebooks better than these old-fashioned type.
Right: I like this kind of notebook better than that

old-fashioned type; [or] I like these kinds of notebooks better than those old-fashioned types.

Matters of Case

Nominative case for subject

210. The subject of a verb (except of an infinitive; see Rule 212) should be in the nominative case.

Who not affected by *he says*, etc.

(*a*) **A parenthetical expression like *he says* intervening between the pronoun *who* and its verb does not change the case of the pronoun.**

Wrong: The man whom I thought was my friend deceived me.

Right: The man who I thought was my friend deceived me. ["Who" is the subject of "was"; "I thought" is a mere parenthesis.]

Wrong: Whom did they say won?

Right: Who did they say won?

Right: The chairman whom they elected has resigned.

Who or *whoever* not affected by preceding words

(*b*) **The pronoun *who* or *whoever*, when it is the subject of a finite verb, is sometimes wrongly put into the objective case, because it appears to be the object of a preceding verb or preposition.**

Wrong: Send whomever will do the work.

Right: Send whoever will do the work. ["Whoever" is the subject of "will do," not the object of "send." The object of "send" is the clause "whoever will do the work."]

Wrong: The question of whom should be leader arose.

Right: The question of who should be leader arose. ["Who" is the subject of "should be," not the object of "of." The object of "of" is the substantive clause "who should be leader."]

Predicate substantive with finite verb

211. A predicate substantive completing a finite verb should be in the nominative case.

Right: It is I. — The beneficiaries are she, they, and we. — Is it we that you accuse? ["It is me" is a colloquialism.]

212. The subject of an infinitive and the predicate substantive completing an infinitive should be in the objective case. Subject and predicate complement of an infinitive

Right: The gazette reported him to be dead. ["Him" is the subject of the infinitive "to be," and not the object of "reported."]

Right: She imagined the burglar to be me. ["Me" is the predicate substantive completing "to be."]

Right: The man whom I thought to be my friend deceived me. ["Whom" is the subject of "to be." Cf. the first two examples under Rule 210 *a*.]

213. The object of a verb or of a preposition should be in the objective case. Object of verb or preposition

Whom do you mean? [not *who*. "Who do you mean?" is an accepted colloquialism.]

Does that rule apply to us upperclassmen? [not *we* upperclassmen.]

214. The pure conjunctions *and, but, or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor* connect nouns and pronouns in the same case. If the substantive preceding the conjunction is in the nominative case, then the substantive following it is in the nominative case, etc. (See Rule 122.) Case after pure conjunctions

Wrong: When she said that to Sister and I, we couldn't help laughing.

Right: When she said that to Sister and me, we couldn't help laughing.

Wrong: Between you and I, I think that she is mistaken.

Right: Between you and me, I think that she is mistaken.

215. An appositive should be in the same case as the noun with which it is in apposition. Appositives

Right: All are going — he, she, and we two.

Right: He spoke to some of us — namely, her and me.

Right: We all met — she, the officer, they you mentioned, and I.

Substantive after *than* or *as*

216. The case of a single substantive following *than* or *as* is nominative or objective, according to its use in the incompleted clause of which it is a part. It is not the object of a preposition, because *than* and *as* are not prepositions, but conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses.

Right: He is happier than I. ["Than I" = "than I am."]

Right: I can do it as well as they. ["As they" = "as they can do it."]

Right: I should help him more willingly than her. ["Than her" = "than I should help her."]

Than whom

NOTE. — The expression *than whom* is ungrammatical, but well established as an idiom.

> ". . . when Beelzebub perceived, — than whom, Satan except, none higher sat, — with grave Aspect he rose. . . ."
>
> — *Paradise Lost,* Book II.

Possessive case: Nouns not designating persons

217. In certain cases it is awkward to attribute possession to inanimate objects.

Awkward: The porch's roof.
Improved: The roof of the porch.

Awkward: The store's management.
Improved: The management of the store.

Permissible exceptions

NOTE. — Good usage justifies many exceptions, including expressions designating time or measure, as *a day's journey, a stone's throw, five minutes' walk, a month's wages;* and expressions implying personification, as *for pity's sake, duty's pleadings, the law's delay.*

Possessive case in objective sense

218. Do not use the possessive case of a noun to indicate the object of an action; use an *of* phrase.

Wrong: Lincoln's assassination.
Right: The assassination of Lincoln.

Wrong: Mankind's benefactor.
Right: The benefactor of mankind.

Possessive with gerund

219. Put the substantive modifying a gerund in the possessive case. Distinguish a gerund, a verbal noun, from a participle; as "His writing is poor" [gerund], "I found him writing a letter" [participle], and "She objected to his going alone" [gerund].

Adjectives and Adverbs

Adverb or predicate adjective

220. In such expressions as *he looks sad, he looks sadly, he stands firm, he stands firmly,* the word following the verb should be an adjective if it describes the subject; if it designates the manner of action of the verb, it should be an adverb. Such verbs as *appear, be, become, seem, smell, sound, taste,* etc., either commonly or invariably require an adjective.

Wrong: I feel badly. [The writer no doubt means *in low spirits* or *sorry* or *in bad health.* What he has said is: *my sense of touch is impaired.*]
Right: I feel bad [*i.e., sorry* or *in low spirits* or *in bad health*].
Right: I feel good [*i.e., in good spirits* or *in a virtuous mood*].
Right: I am well [*i.e., in good health,* an adjective use of *well*].
Right: I am ill [*i.e., in bad health,* an adjective use of *ill*].
Wrong: I am nicely. [*Nicely* is an adverb; an adjective should be used.]
Wrong: I am poorly. [*Poorly* is an adverb; an adjective should be used.]
Right: He appears good [*i.e.,* appears to be a *good man*].
Right: He appears well in public [*i.e.,* makes his appearance in a creditable manner].

Right: The music sounds loud [*i.e.*, has the characteristic of *loud music*].
Right: The bugle sounded loudly through the ranks [*i.e.*, sounded in a loud manner].
Right (poetic): Loud through the ranks sounded the bugle [*i.e.*, the loud bugle sounded].
Right: It stands immovable. It smells sweet. It tastes sour. Your hand feels cold. She looks dainty. That statement sounds queer.

Comparative and superlative degrees

221. Use the comparative degree of an adjective or an adverb in speaking of two persons or things and the superlative degree in speaking of three or more persons or things.

Wrong: She was the most popular of the two sisters.
Right: She was the more popular of the two sisters.
Right: She was the most popular of the three sisters.

222. Certain adjectives and adverbs are logically incapable of comparison; as, for example, *circular, round, perfect, absolute, immortal, faultless, unique, equal, entire, whole, conclusive, unanimous.*

Illogical: I feel more equal to the task now than I have ever felt before.
Right: I feel more able to do the task now than I have ever felt before; [or] I feel more nearly equal to the task now, etc.

NOTE. — Words of this type tend through careless usage to lose their superlative force. Many good writers and speakers use a perfective adverb with these absolute words to restore their finality; as, for example, *His satire on the corrupt society of the 17th century is quite perfect.*

Adverb or factitive adjective

223. In such expressions as *he holds it steady, he holds it steadily, he filled it full, he filled it fully*, the modifier should be an adjective if it designates the condition of the object; if it designates the manner of action of the verb, it should be an adverb.

Right: He kept it safe [*i.e.*, through his keeping, it was safe].
Right: He kept it safely [*i.e.*, he performed in a safe manner the act of keeping].
Right: He wrapped it tight ["tight" designates the condition of the object].
Right: He wrapped it tightly ["tightly" designates the mode of wrapping].
Right: Sweep it clean. Hold it motionless. Shoot him dead. Nail it solid. Bury it deep. Raise it high.

Matters of Voice

Misuse of passive voice

224. Avoid awkward use of the passive voice. The active voice is usually clearer, terser, and more forceful than the passive. (See Rule 37.)

Bad: Your letter was received and carefully read by me.
Right: I received and carefully read your letter. (See Rule 436 *a*.)

Bad: That was a crisis in my life which will never be forgotten.
Right: That was a crisis in my life which I shall never forget.

Matters of Mode

The subjunctive

225. Most educated and intelligent writers use the subjunctive mode for a wish, volition, or a condition improbable or contrary to fact. *Be* and *were* are practically the only special subjunctive forms in modern use.

Right: If this *were* [not *was*] Wednesday, I could go with you.
Right: Don't you, John, wish you *were* [not *was*] in his place?
Right: I insist that he attend to the matter today.
Right: Everybody stand up.
Right (less common): If he *be* guilty, let him suffer

the consequences. "If he *is* guilty" implies less doubt.

Matters of Tense

(*Including* ***shall*** *and* ***will***)

Shall and *will* Expectation

226. To represent simple future use *shall* (or *should*) in the first person, and *will* (or *would*) in the second and third persons. Most of the errors in the use of *shall* and *will* consist in the use of *will* for *shall* in the first person, future. *I will miss her very much* means, in the idiomatic sense, *I am willing* or *I am determined to miss her*. The intended meaning is, of course, the simple future, *I am going to miss her.*

Memorize the following formula:

I shall (should)	we shall (should)
you will (would)	you will (would)
he will (would)	they will (would)

Wrong: I don't believe I will be able to go.
Right: I don't believe I shall be able to go.
Right: I don't believe he will be able to go.

Wrong: I feared I would fail.
Right: I feared I should fail.
Right: I feared you would fail.

Note. — Excepted from the rules governing these auxiliaries are the use of *should* to express obligation — I *should* not have said that — and the use of *would* to express habitual action — I *would* sit by the hour in the parlor waiting for her to come down.

Determination, etc.

227. To represent determination, desire, willingness, or promise on the part of the speaker, use *will* (or *would*) in the first person, and *shall* (or *should*) in the second and third persons. The following is the formula for such expressions:

I will (would)	we will (would)
you shall (should)	you shall (should)
he shall (should)	they shall (should)

Right: I will help you; I promise it. You shall not stir; I forbid it. They shall be hanged at sunrise; we, the court, decree it.

NOTE. — In the first person, the subject determines the action, for the subject and the speaker are the same person: *I will go* means *I am determined to go.* In the second and third persons, the subject does not determine the action, for the subject is not the speaker: *he shall go* means *I am determined that he shall go.*

Shall and *will* with *like*, etc.

228. The verbs *like, prefer, care, be glad, be inclined,* etc., use the auxiliary *shall* for the first person and *will* for the second and third. *I will be glad to go* means, in the idiomatic sense, *I am determined to be glad.*

Wrong: I would like to see her when she returns.
Right: I should like to see her when she returns.
Right: He would like to see her when she returns.

229. In a question containing *shall* or *should, will* or *would* —

In questions

(*a*) **When the subject is in the first person, use the auxiliary *shall* or *should*, except in repeating a question addressed to the speaker.**

Wrong: Well, what will we do now?
Right: Well, what shall we do now?
Right (exception): Will I help you? Why, certainly.

(*b*) **When the subject is in the second or third person, use the auxiliary that will be used in the answer.**

Right form for a question as to expectations: Shall you be recognized, do you think? [The answer, according to Rule 226 would be either, "I shall be" or "I shall not be"; therefore *shall* should be used in the question.]

Right form for a question as to intention: Will you do the deed? [The answer, according to Rule 227,

would be either "I will" or "I will not"; therefore *will* should be used in the question.]

In indirect quotations

230. In an indirect quotation use the auxiliary that would properly be used if the quotation were direct.

Right: He said he thought he should ride. [The direct quotation would be, "I think I shall ride"; therefore *should* (an inflectional form of *shall*) should be used in the indirect quotation.]

Shall and *should* in contingent statements

231. In subordinate clauses making conditional statements, *shall* and *should* are correctly used for all persons. In other subordinate clauses *shall* and *should* are commonly used in all persons for the simple future; *will* and *would*, for wishing, consenting, and willing.

Right: If they should find it, I should rejoice.
Right: A man who should do that would be hated.

NOTE. — Some of the rules for *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would* are disregarded by many intelligent and educated persons. Therefore, "I will probably come on Thursday," although not the best usage, is correct colloquial English. The rule, however, indicates the practice of most writers.

Present tense for statements permanently true

232. Statements permanently true should be put in the present tense. When they occur in a subordinate clause in indirect discourse, following a verb in past time, guard against their being attracted into the past.

Wrong: He said that oak was the best wood for floors.
Right: He said that oak is the best wood for floors.

Wrong: I have always heard that the four years of college were the happiest in a man's life.
Right: I have always heard that the four years of college are the happiest in a man's life.

The present tense is preferred, as a rule, in book reviews, criticisms, etc., for statements of permanent truth regarding a work of art. In statements relating

the events of the author's life, etc., the past tense would, of course, be used.

Right: In *Old China*, Charles Lamb *pictures* most charmingly his home life with his sister Mary, to whom he *was* very devoted.

Right: Jane Austen's settings *are* of the English village life that she *knew* so well.

NOTE. — For the use of the historical present, see Rule 47.

The undated past tense

233. Obscurity, or an effect of incompleteness, arises from the use of a verb in the past tense unaccompanied by a time modifier, when there is in the context no indication of the time of the action.

Obscure and incomplete: In accounting for the origin of Lake Wingra, geologists say that a small stream ran through the territory where the lake now lies.

Clear [The necessary time modifier of "ran" is supplied]: In accounting for the origin of Lake Wingra, geologists say that at some remote period a small stream ran through the territory where the lake now lies.

NOTE. — When a sentence introduces a new or additional idea, obscurity is often avoided by the addition of a time modifier, no matter what the tense of the verb may be. Words expressing indefinite time, such as "now and then," "always," "frequently," etc., are at times indispensable. Similarly adverbs and adverbial phrases or clauses expressing place or attendant circumstances should not be omitted when they make the meaning clearer. An example of the first part of this suggestion is found in the use of "at times" in the second sentence of the text of this paragraph.

Confusion of past and present tenses

234. The past tense and the present perfect tense should not be confused. The past tense represents action completed in the past. The present perfect represents action going on at any time up to the present.

Wrong: I have asked her yesterday to give me her address.

Right: I asked her yesterday to give me her address.

Right: I have asked her many times to give me her address.

Wrong: At present we did not have a reply from them.

Right: At present we have not had a reply from them.

Past misused for past perfect

235. The past perfect tense represents action prior to some past time.

Obscure: Mitchell hired a jockey named Brunt to ride Shackles in the approaching race. *Brunt was injured in a jump-race and gave up racing for a time.* But Mitchell persuaded him to begin again. [The reader supposes that the events stated in the italicized sentence followed the employment of Brunt by Mitchell; whereas the writer intends to say that those events preceded the employment. The use of the past tense in the italicized sentence is thus entirely misleading.]

Clear: Mitchell hired a jockey named Brunt to ride Shackles in the approaching race. Brunt *had been injured* in a jump-race and *had given up* racing for a time. But Mitchell persuaded him to begin again.

Sequence of tenses

236. Maintain proper sequence of tenses. The past is not all one, but may be said to consist of the particular time of the main narrative, previous time, and subsequent time down to the present, each time having its appropriate tense.

Wrong: They informed us that they wrote to Paris for instructions.

Right: They informed us [past time, past tense] that they had written [previous time, past perfect tense] to Paris for instructions, but since then we have not heard [subsequent time, perfect tense] the outcome of their inquiry.

Relation of subordinate verbs: perfect infinitive

237. Maintain a proper relation between subordinate verb-forms and the verb of the main clause.

(*a*) **An infinitive should be in the present tense unless it represents action prior to that of the governing verb.** Guard against its being attracted into the perfect.

Wrong: It was not necessary for you to have gone.
Right: It was not necessary for you to go.

Wrong: I intended to have answered.
Right: I intended to answer.

Perfect conditional

(*b*) **A conditional verb-phrase in a dependent clause should be in the present tense unless it represents action prior to that of the governing verb.** Guard against its being attracted into the perfect.

Wrong: I should not have said it if I had thought it would have shocked her.
Right: I should not have said it if I had thought it would shock her.

Anachronous participles

238. The past participle represents action prior to that of the governing verb; the present participle action at the time expressed by the verb.

Wrong: It is old, being founded in 1809.
Right: It is old, having been founded in 1809.

Wrong: Starting for London, he arrived there two weeks later.
Right: He started for London and arrived there two weeks later.

EXERCISE

Grammar

Correct any errors in grammar that you may find in the following sentences. Give your reasons for making the changes.

1. Diamonds is trump. 2. Are you sure that it is I who is wanted? 3. Half of the city's fire-fighting engines were called out. 4. Most of the corn and wheat have been damaged by the drought. 5. Our complete stock of diamonds, jewelry, standard-make watches, and silverware are going on the auction block. 6. It is the few finishing touches that postpone the opening of the new bridge.

Grammar

7. Neither of the boys were sick a day while they were gone. 8. Each of us try to help the other. 9. Differential and integral calculus was difficult for me. 10. After the preliminary plans and the necessary legislation was completed, the actual operations were started.

11. In so dense a forest, there was no chance of him escaping without some injury. 12. As a small boy, my ambition was to be a jockey, and when I was eighteen, the opportunity presented itself. 13. These people are just a background that help in forming us. 14. He was pitcher on the side opposite my friend and I. 15. The machine is driven by the power from the boat's engine, and so rapid does it work that three men are required to remove the fish from the net. 16. It takes more imagination than any intelligent man possesses to believe that prohibition shall ever be enforced. 17. Colleges are filled with students who are hoping to be educated so that they might do business better than the uneducated. 18. I was so much excited that I did not even ask Ned who he was trying to get to help. 19. It was the fate of my cousin and I to have to play a cornet duet. 20. I know now that death comes unexpected under all circumstances.

21. Economists predict that, according to statistics, the earth, two centuries hence, would be overflooded with population. 22. There has been many attacks upon present day college education. 23. My lamb had grown to a great size, and his nimble black legs grew sleek and strong, his large brown eyes became almost human in understanding, and his wool had become bountiful and fine in texture. 24. We crept up slower and slower, finally reaching the house. 25. When I asked to sleep in the "best room," my request had met with surprisingly little objection. 26. Sleeping cars are built of steel, which make them safe in case of a wreck. 27. Sometimes I wonder whether I will ever be of as much use as my grandmother was when she was young. 28. Age has added its mellowing touch to the older buildings — the original fortress, the block houses, the sturdy remains of what in that time were the acme of perfection in defensive structures. 29. Although we are all created equally, some of us still feel a little better than others. 30. The old hen with her large brood of little chicks were all trying to crowd into the tiny playhouse.

31. Two-thirds of my time is spent on my mathematics. Grammar
32. None of us is going to the concert. 33. He gave the most complete explanation of all. 34. She is one of those comfortable kind of persons who always make you feel at ease. 35. I am more worried than her about the news. 36. He cut her off short in the middle of her story. 37. Would you care to come with us? 38. I would like to apply for a position in your high school. 39. The whole family were there: her, her mother, and her four sisters. 40. Drive slow. Dangerous hill ahead.

41. She would not dare say that to either you or I. 42. Whom do you think would be able to fill such a position? 43. I feel good this morning for the first time since I took cold. 44. His father is determined that he goes to college. 45. What will we do if the doors are locked? 46. Who should he choose for his partner but I! 47. They were to have gone yesterday. 48. I had enough money left to buy some lunch for my friend and I. 49. As the car's headlights blazed into my eyes, I was blinded. 50. He consulted all people who he considered wiser than himself.

51. For pledging dinner, you will wear a formal, but you will not need them again until October or November. 52. The few ashes resulting from the burning of hard coal means less disagreeable work. 53. The storm of questions and suspicions and rumors, some confirmed, others unconfirmed, have been so violent as to raise in any reasonable person's mind a further question. 54. We left for Paris the next day, arriving there on Sunday. 55. If that was true, then I did right. 56. Which is the man who they thought him to be? 57. There is to be a dance and a bridge party there tonight. 58. They were all there, each one of them dressed up in their best.

Punctuation between clauses (i) Relationship between clauses

239. The grossest errors in punctuation, the comma fault (see Rule 253) and the period fault (see Rule 73), are the result of confusion in the use of commas, semicolons, and periods between clauses. (See Grammatical Vocabulary.) This confusion, in turn, often is due to the writer's failure to organize his thoughts. For this reason, the rules which state the uses of these marks between clauses are brought together in order to make the difference clear.

The important difference in the use of commas, semicolons, and periods is one of degree. The period is the strongest mark, the semicolon next in strength, and the comma the weakest. In order to decide which mark is to be used, the writer must consider the relationship between the parts of the thought in his sentence, *i.e.*, between the clauses. If the parts are very closely related, no mark of punctuation may be necessary, or a comma may be sufficient. If the parts are more remotely related, a semicolon may be sufficient. If, however, the relationship is so slight that the parts of the thought are not closely enough united to go into one sentence, then a period must be used. The degrees of relationship are not vague, and do not depend entirely upon the individual writer's whim. Whether the break requires a comma, a semicolon, or a period depends largely upon the kinds of clauses, the kinds of connectives, or the omission of connectives.

(*a*) **A comma is sufficient —**

Comma between clauses

(1) **Between two principal clauses if they are connected by one of the pure conjunctions:** *and, but, for, or, nor, neither.* (See Rule 253.) Note that very short clauses connected by one of the pure conjunctions do not usually require any punctuation.

Right: I spent the whole evening on my mathematics lesson, but I could not solve more than two problems out of ten.

Right: The winters are cold and the summers are hot.

(2) **Between a subordinate clause and its principal clause if the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause.** (See Rule 242 *h.*) If the principal clause precedes the subordinate clause, no mark of punctuation is necessary (unless the subordinate clause is non-restrictive). (See Rule 245.) A semicolon or a period should not be used between a principal clause and its subordinate clause, regardless of the order in which they are written.

Wrong: If I do not go tomorrow. She will be angry. (Period fault.)

Wrong: If I do not go tomorrow; she will be angry.

Right: If I do not go tomorrow, she will be angry.

Right: I expect to go on with my engineering course if I pass in all of my courses; if I do not, I shall transfer to commerce. (Note that the semicolon is placed between two subordinate clauses, not between a principal clause and its subordinate clause. The semicolon is actually used to separate the principal clauses. See *b* following.)

Right: We expect to go as far as Chicago by train; if the roads are good from there to Detroit, we shall drive. (Note that the semicolon does not separate a subordinate clause from its principal clause.)

Semicolon between clauses

(*b*) **A semicolon should be used —**

(1) **Between two principal clauses not joined by a**

pure conjunction. The gap in thought is too great for the use of a comma.

Wrong: He did not wait for an answer, he grabbed his hat and ran. (Comma fault.)

Right: He did not wait for an answer; he grabbed his hat and ran.

(2) **Between principal clauses joined by one of the conjunctive adverbs:** *therefore*, *moreover*, *hence*, etc. (See Rule 255 *b*.)

Right: We were delayed by the heavy rains; therefore we did not arrive in time for the meeting.

Note 1. — The conjunctive adverb, unlike the pure conjunction, does not need to stand between the clauses, but may occur within the second clause. Therefore it does not link the clauses so closely as the pure conjunction does.

Right: We were delayed by the heavy rains; we did not therefore arrive in time for the meeting.

Note 2. — If a semicolon is used, be certain that the conjunctive adverb is used between *principal* clauses and that the conjunctive adverb is used as a *conjunctive* adverb and not as an adverb.

Wrong: If he is right; then we must correct our mistake.

Right: If he is right, then we must correct our mistake.

Wrong: He may; however, be right.

Right: He may, however, be right; [or] He may however be right.

(*c*) **A semicolon may be used between two principal clauses connected by a pure conjunction if the clauses are long and especially if they contain commas.** The semicolon thus makes clear the grouping in the sentence.

The character of Machiavelli was hateful to the new masters of Italy; and those parts of his theory which were

in strict accordance with their own daily practice afforded a pretext for blackening his memory. — MACAULAY.

Bedlam would be comic, perhaps, if there were only one madman in it; and your Christmas pantomime is comic, when there is only one clown in it; but when the whole world turns clown, and paints itself red with its own heart's blood instead of vermilion, it is something else than comic, I think. — RUSKIN.

Period between clauses

(*d*) **A period is used between two principal clauses when the relationship in the thought is so remote that the clauses cannot be put into one sentence.**

Bad: Student organizations give one a training for leadership in business organizations, for they duplicate, to a large extent, conditions of a business organization; work with a student organization teaches one to coöperate with others, to take responsibility, and to direct others.

Improved: Student organizations give one a training for leadership in business organizations, for they duplicate, to a large extent, conditions of a business organization. Work with a student organization teaches one to coöperate with others, to take responsibility, and to direct others.

(ii) Weight of clauses

240. The importance or weight of clauses may suggest whether a comma, a semicolon, or a period is to be used. A semicolon or a period may be used between clauses connected by a pure conjunction, if the second clause is important even though it is short. It is given emphasis by the semicolon or period that it would not receive from the comma.

There were four beds in the little upstairs room; and we slept six. — STEVENSON.

I took the story home to my father and mother and they were moved by it. For in their starved and lonely lives they had set all their hopes on me. And these hopes were liberal and fine.
— L. LEWISOHN.

The Period (.)

Close of a sentence

241. Use the period —

(*a*) **After a complete declarative or imperative sentence.**

Abbreviations

(*b*) **After an abbreviated word or a single or double initial letter representing a word; as *etc.*, *viz.*, *Mrs.*, *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *LL.D.*, *pp.***

Note. — It is scarcely practicable to make a distinction here between abbreviations and contractions. *Dr.* for *Doctor*, *Mr.* for *Mister*, *Mrs.* for *Mistress* are usually called abbreviations although they are shortened by the omission of letters within the word. There is variation in the use of the period after them. Note that a period is not used after *Miss*, a contraction of *Mistress*.

The Comma (,)

242. Use the comma —

Direct address

(*a*) **To set off a substantive used in direct address.**

Wrong: For once, Tom you are correct.
Right: For once, Tom, you are correct.
Right: Come here, my boys.

Appositives

(*b*) **To set off appositives.**

Wrong: We motored over to Greenfield, the county-seat to see the annual fair.
Right: We motored over to Greenfield, the county-seat, to see the annual fair.
Right: He introduced his uncle, Mr. Harris.

Note. — An appositive used to distinguish its principal from other persons or things called by the same name should not usually be separated from its principal by punctuation.

Right: The poet Masefield. Charles the Bold. My son Robert. The expression "Over the top."

Absolute phrases

(*c*) **To set off absolute phrases.**

Wrong: It seems queer, the affair being as you say that he should be angry.

Right: It seems queer, the affair being as you say, that he should be angry.

Right: The brakes being worn, we stopped barely in time.

Right: I doubt whether they will come, the roads being so bad.

Parenthetic members

(*d*) **To set off words, phrases, or clauses which have a parenthetic function, but for which parenthesis marks or double dashes are not suitable.** (See Rules 264 *b* and 267.) Especially to be observed are parenthetic phrases indicating the character or the connection of a statement — for example, *in the second place, of course, to tell the truth, for example, that is, in fact, I think, I believe, he says, I repeat.*

Wrong: The house stood, I believe on this very spot.

Right: The house stood, I believe, on this very spot.

Right: For example, this morning the toast was burned.

Right: This is very considerate of you, to say the least.

Right: The trip was, to tell the truth, rather a failure.

Note 1. — For setting off a parenthetic expression, prefer commas to parenthesis marks where commas will make the sentence clear; but notice that the use of commas for this purpose may cause obscurity in some cases — particularly when the parenthetic expression is a complete sentence.

Obscure: By all appearances, of course this is a secret, he is likely to win.

Clear: By all appearances (of course this is a secret) he is likely to win; [or] By all appearances — of course this is a secret — he is likely to win [see Rule 264 *b*.]

Note 2. — The comma as a rule is not used to set off *also, perhaps, indeed, therefore, of course, at least, in fact, nevertheless, likewise,* and other parenthetical expressions that do not require a pause in reading.

Note 3. — This rule does not apply to *however, moreover,* and the other conjunctive adverbs when they are used to

join principal clauses; a semicolon is necessary in such cases. (See Rule 255 *b*.)

Right: He will, however, understand why I did it.
Right: He will understand why I did it; however he will not approve of my doing it.

Geographical names, addresses, dates, reference

(*e*) **To separate the parts of addresses, dates, references, and geographical names.**

Right: Her address is 233 West 118th Street, New York City.
Right: I returned on Friday, February 4, 1926.
Right: The quotation is from *King Lear*, II, 1.
Right: He lived in Summit, New Jersey.

Words in pairs

(*f*) **To separate words or phrases that are contrasted, or arranged in pairs.**

Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable.

Coördinate clauses joined by a conjunction

(*g*) **To separate coördinate clauses joined by one of the pure conjunctions, *and, but, for, or, neither, nor,* unless the clauses are short and closely connected.** (Cf. Rule 255 *b*.)

Right: The telephone rang violently, but no one answered.
Right: The question which lay before them, and which had been argued for weeks, was still unsettled.
Right: I called but she was away.

Comma before *for*

Note 1. — The observance of the foregoing rule is especially important in the case of clauses connected by the coördinating conjunction *for*. Unless a comma is placed between such clauses, the *for* is liable to be mistaken momentarily for a preposition.

Misleading: She was obliged to give up the dinner for her cook was leaving.
Clear. She was obliged to give up the dinner, for her cook was leaving.

Note 2. — This rule concerns only coördinate *clauses* joined by conjunctions; it does not refer to a clause containing a compound predicate of two verbs.

Comma unnecessary: He seized the rope, and hauled the boat alongside.

Right: He seized the rope and hauled the boat alongside.

Note 3. — Do not put the comma after the conjunction.

Wrong: The telephone rang violently but, no one answered.

Right: The telephone rang violently, but no one answered.

Subordinate clauses

(*h*) **As a rule, to set off a subordinate clause preceding its principal clause.** When the subordinate clause follows the principal clause, a comma is not necessary if the clause is restrictive (See Rule 245), but a comma is usually required if the clause is non-restrictive.

Right: When the ship is in, the lock is closed.

Right: If you have time, telephone me from the station.

Right: Telephone me from the station if you have time.

Right: He was not in his room, though his light was burning.

Right: I am very glad to subscribe, especially since Pryor is to contribute.

Right: He told us that the boat was ready.

Right: I do not know how it occurred, and I have no idea whether Harris was mixed up in it.

Introductory adverbial phrases

(*i*) **Usually, to set off an introductory adverbial phrase containing a verb.** One not containing a verb should usually not be followed by any mark of punctuation. (But see Rule *j*, below.) Distinguish between adverbial phrases, that is, phrases modifying a predicate, an adjective, or an adverb; and parenthetic phrases, that is, phrases which modify the whole statement. (See Rule *d*, above.)

Right: In order to live, we must eat.

Right: Despite his efforts to escape, he remained a prisoner.

Right: Upon opening the door, she smelled escaping gas. [Gerund phrase.]

Right: To succeed in your undertaking, you must follow your lawyer's advice. [Infinitive phrase.]

Right: After all the hardships he has suffered, he deserves some repose. [Phrase containing a clause.]

Right: In about an hour our belated friends arrived.

To prevent mistaken junction

(*j*) **To indicate separation between any sentence-elements that might be improperly joined in reading, were the comma not used.**

Misleading: Ever since he has devoted himself to athletics.

Clear: Ever since, he has devoted himself to athletics.

Misleading: Inside the fire shone brightly.

Clear: Inside, the fire shone brightly.

Misleading: While we were washing the lieutenant a man for whom we had no affection, suddenly appeared.

Clear: While we were washing, the lieutenant, a man for whom we had no affection, suddenly appeared.

Ambiguous: He would not admit to himself that he loved her because she was wealthy.

Clear: He would not admit to himself that he loved her, because she was wealthy.

[A comma should be used before the abverbial *because* clause if the writer wishes to indicate that the clause does not modify the nearer verb.]

Ambiguous: He stepped up to his opponent shaking his fist under his nose.

Clear: He stepped up to his opponent, shaking his fist under his nose.

[Here the comma is used before the participle phrase to indicate that the phrase does not modify the nearest noun.]

For the comma before *such as*, see Rule 298; after *namely, that is*, etc., see Rule 299.

Consecutive adjectives

243. Two adjectives modifying the same noun should be separated by a comma if they are coördinate in thought; but if the first adjective is felt to be superposed on the second, they should not be separated by a comma.

Right: A faithful, sincere friend. [The adjectives are coördinate in thought; both modify "friend."]

Right: A big gray cat. [The adjectives are not coördinate in thought; "gray" modifies "cat," but "big" modifies "gray cat."]

NOTE. — A comma should not be used between the last adjective and the noun it modifies.

Wrong: The heroine is a beautiful, young, and gay, lady.

Right: The heroine is a beautiful, young, and gay lady.

Series of the form *a*, *b*, and *c*

244. In a series of the form *a*, *b*, and *c*, a comma should precede the conjunction. The practice of omitting the comma before the conjunction is illogical and is not favored by the best modern usage.

Objectionable: There were blue, green and red flags. [The punctuation here couples "green" and "red" and makes them appear to be set apart, as a pair, from "blue"; whereas the intention is to make all three adjectives equally distinct.]

Right: There were blue, green, and red flags.

NOTE 1. — This rule applies to a series with *or* or *nor* the same as to one with *and*.

Right: Is the man white, black, or yellow?

NOTE 2. — This rule applies also to phrases and clauses used in series. (See Rule 253.)

Right: The curtains fluttered, the windows rattled, and the doors slammed.

Restrictive and non-restrictive modifiers: Clauses

245. (*a*) A non-restrictive clause should be set off by the comma; a restrictive clause should not be set off by the comma. A non-restrictive clause is a

clause the omission of which would not change the meaning of the principal clause. (If it can be *omitted*, it can be *set off by commas*.) It is explanatory or parenthetical, giving additional information about a word that has already been limited or that needs no limitation. A restrictive clause is a clause the omission of which would change the meaning of the principal clause. It limits a word that has not already been limited or defined.

Right: My old fountain pen, *which never leaked or clogged*, is broken. [Non-restrictive clause; can be omitted: "My old fountain pen is broken." The pen is already limited to one particular pen by the words *my old fountain*.]

Right: A fountain pen *which leaks* is worse than none. Restrictive clause; cannot be omitted: "A fountain pen is worse than none." [The pen is not already limited to one particular pen by the words *a fountain*.]

Right: Foch, whose genius won the war, was a theorist and a school-teacher. [Non-restrictive.]

Right: The general whose genius won the war was a theorist and a school-teacher. [Restrictive.]

NOTE. — The meaning of the sentence may be altered by the addition or omission of commas.

All of the students in this class who have not handed in the required number of themes will be failed in the course.

All of the students in this class, who have not handed in the required number of themes, will be failed in the course.

Phrases

(*b*) **A non-restrictive phrase following its principal should be set off by the comma; a restrictive phrase following its principal should not be set off by the comma.**

Right: The ruined spire, *rising above the deserted*

village, marked the end of our journey. [Non-restrictive.]

Right: The tree standing in the corner of the garden was the favorite haunt of the children. [Restrictive.]

Yes, no, surely, etc.

246. Such words as *yes, no, surely, certainly, indeed* may be used as introductory words or as elliptical sentences. They should be punctuated according to their use.

"Yes, it was bad," said Austin. — MEREDITH.

"Me, Mr. Copperfield?" said Uriah. "Oh, no! I'm a very 'umble person." — DICKENS.

"Indeed, he is almost as good as the puppets, only of course not quite so natural." — OSCAR WILDE.

"Indeed! But we thought you were going home?" — KIPLING.

With interjections

247. After an interjection which is intended to be only mildly exclamatory, use a comma rather than an exclamation point.

Right: Oh, come when you are ready.

Right: But alas, this was not the case.

Right: Well, I am not going.

Before quotations

248. Separate a short direct quotation from the rest of the sentence by a comma. (Cf. Rule 257. For other rules of punctuation with quotation marks, see Rules 272–276.)

Right: He said with a frown, "They are acting suspiciously."

Right: "You are entirely mistaken," she retorted.

Unnecessary commas

249. Guard against the use of commas where they are not necessary. Especially, do not put a comma between a verb and its subject. As a rule, do not put a comma where no pause is made in reading.

Misuse before a series

250. Do not put a comma, or any other mark of punctuation, before the first member of a series of

sentence-elements unless it would be required there if one element instead of a series followed.

Wrong: During my senior year I studied, Latin, Greek, and chemistry.

Right: During my senior year I studied Latin, Greek, and chemistry.

Wrong: It is valuable, (1) to the student, (2) to the statesman, and (3) to the merchant.

Right: It is valuable (1) to the student, (2) to the statesman, and (3) to the merchant.

Misuse after a series

251. Do not put a comma, or any other mark of punctuation, after the last member of a series of sentence-elements unless it would be required there if one element instead of a series preceded.

Wrong: Latin, French, and history, were my favorite subjects in high school.

Right: Latin, French, and history were my favorite subjects in high school.

Wrong: She planned, prepared, and served, all the meals without any help.

Right: She planned, prepared, and served all the meals without any help.

Misuse before a substantive clause

252. Put no comma before a substantive clause introduced by *that* or *how* when the governing verb (such as *said, thought, supposed*) immediately or very closely precedes the clause.

Wrong: The boatswain said, that the wheel was damaged.

Right: The boatswain said that the wheel was damaged.

Wrong: I always supposed, that the foreman was to blame.

Right: I always supposed that the foreman was to blame.

Wrong: They told us, how they had escaped.

Right: They told us how they had escaped.

Comma fault

253. Do not use a comma between coördinate principal clauses that are not joined by one of the pure conjunctions, *and, but, for, or, neither, nor,* except when the clauses are short, have no commas within themselves, and are closely parallel in form and substance. Use a semicolon if it is rhetorically desirable to indicate close relationship between the clauses; otherwise use a period. This error is an inexcusable fault in writing, because, like the "period fault" (see Rule 73), it shows inability to recognize what constitutes a sentence. (See Rules 255 *a* and 255 *b*.)

Wrong: He had not the habit of concentration, this was the cause of his failure.

Right: He had not the habit of concentration; this was the cause of his failure.

Wrong: He threw the weapon from him, it clattered noisily on the floor.

Right: He threw the weapon from him; it clattered noisily on the floor.

Wrong: We have won for two years, if we win today, we retain the trophy.

Right: We have won for two years; if we win today, we retain the trophy.

Wrong: Oh, come, you'd better.

Right: Oh, come; you'd better.

Right: The curtains fluttered, the windows rattled, the doors slammed.

Right: Nothing future is quite secure; states enough have inwardly rotted; and democracy as a whole may undergo self-poisoning. — William James. [Although the clauses are closely parallel in form, yet commas would be too light.]

Note 1. — A worse fault than the "comma fault" is that of putting together two principal clauses without any mark of punctuation.

Wrong: I enjoyed my week in Chicago it was my first visit there.

Right: I enjoyed my week in Chicago. It was my first visit there.

Note 2. — A comma is sufficient between a statement and a question depending upon that statement.

Right: You are leaving today, aren't you?

Wrong: I liked the play very much, did you?

Right: I liked the play very much. Did you? [or] I liked the play very much; did you?

Note 3. — In a sentence beginning with a *that*-clause from which the *that* is omitted, a comma is sufficient between the *that*-clause and the principal clause. In such cases the comma is not being used between principal clauses.

Right: Our vacation is over, I am sorry to say. [I am sorry to say that our vacation is over.]

Right: He will stay longer, he tells me. [He tells me that he will stay longer.]

Right: She did not understand a word of his talk, it could clearly be seen. [It could clearly be seen that she did not understand a word of his talk.]

Right: You can hardly walk, the chickens gather so closely about your feet. [The chickens gather so closely about your feet that you can hardly walk.]

Punctuation consistent

254. Punctuation should be consistent throughout a sentence. Coördinate elements should be punctuated alike.

Wrong: We liked the house very much because it was on a quiet side street; because it had a large yard, and because it was spacious enough for our family.

Right: We liked the house very much because it was on a quiet side street, because it had a large yard, and because it was spacious enough for our family.

Wrong: A salesman should have a pleasing appearance; a courteous, and agreeable manner, and a persuasive tongue.

Right: A salesman should have a pleasing appearance, a courteous and agreeable manner, and a persuasive tongue.

Wrong: In the yard the pig iron is weighed; the grade of iron is marked on it, and it is then loaded upon cars.

Right: In the yard the pig iron is weighed, the grade of iron is marked on it, and it is then loaded upon cars.

Wrong: She had every kind of misfortune, her father's death, her mother's illness the loss of their property, but she continued her college work and graduated with high honors.

Right: She had every kind of misfortune: her father's death, her mother's illness, the loss of their property; but she continued her college work and graduated with high honors.

The Semicolon (;)

255. Use the semicolon —

Between clauses of a compound sentence

(*a*) **Between clauses of a compound sentence that are not joined by a conjunction.**

Right: He did not go to Canada; he went to Mexico.

Caution

Note. — As a means of combining sentences into compound sentences, the semicolon may easily be abused. A series of sentences should not be grouped together in this way unless the compound sentence so formed has a distinct and readily felt unity.

Before *so, therefore,* etc.

(*b*) **Between clauses of a compound sentence that are joined by one of the conjunctive adverbs, *so, therefore, hence, however, nevertheless, moreover, accordingly, besides, also, thus, then, still, otherwise*, and *in fact.***

Wrong: I saw no reason for moving, therefore I stayed still.

Right: I saw no reason for moving; therefore I stayed still.

Wrong: He went below and lit the fuse, then he returned to the deck.

Right: He went below and lit the fuse; then he returned to the deck.

Conjunctive adverbs distinguished from simple conjunctions

NOTE. — Good usage makes a clear distinction, as regards punctuation, between conjunctive adverbs and simple coördinating conjunctions (e.g., *and, but, or, for*). A comma is ordinarily used (see Rule 242 *g*) between clauses of a compound sentence that are connected by a simple conjunction; but a comma should emphatically not be used between clauses connected by a conjunctive adverb. Compare the two following sentences:

Right: The president bowed, and Hughes began to speak.

Right: The president bowed; then Hughes began to speak.

Before *and, but,* etc., in certain cases

(*c*) **Ordinarily, between the clauses of a compound sentence that are joined by a simple conjunction, when these clauses are somewhat long, or are subdivided by commas.**

Right: The care of his own health and morals is the greatest trust which is committed to a young man; and often the loss of ability, the degeneracy of character, the want of self-control are due to his neglect of them. — BENJAMIN JOWETT.

Between involved sentence-members

(*d*) **To separate two or more coördinate members of a simple or complex sentence when those members, or some of them, have commas within themselves.**

Right: He said that he had lent his neighbor an ax; that on the next day, needing the ax, he had gone to get it; and that his neighbor had denied borrowing it. [The three objects of "said" are separated not by commas, as ordinarily three objects of a verb should be, but by semicolons, because one of the objects has commas within itself.]

Instead of a comma, to prevent obscurity

(*e*) **To separate any two members of a simple or complex sentence when, for any reason, a comma would not make the relation between them immediately clear.**

Misleading: If I were a millionaire, I would have horses, and motors, and yachts, and the whole world should minister to my pleasure.

Clear: If I were a millionaire, I would have horses, and motors, and yachts; and the whole world should minister to my pleasure.

Improper use in place of a comma

256. Do not use a semicolon between two members of a simple or complex sentence except in accordance with Rule 255 *d* or 255 *e*; use a comma if any punctuation is required at such a place.

Wrong: If you get no thanks from a person you have favored; you have no respect for him.

Right: If you get no thanks from a person you have favored, you have no respect for him.

Wrong: He was black-eyed; dark-complexioned; and altogether very handsome.

Right: He was black-eyed, dark-complexioned, and altogether very handsome.

Right: Well, there I might live, I said; and there I did live, for an hour, a summer and a winter life; saw how I could let the years run off, buffet the winter through, and see the spring come in. — THOREAU.

[Note that the semicolons are used between principal clauses, the second semicolon being followed by an elliptical clause.]

THE COLON (:)

A sign of introduction

257. The colon should be used after a word, phrase, or sentence constituting an introduction to something that follows, such as a list, an extended quotation, or instances or explanation of a general statement preceding.

Right: There are three causes: poverty, injustice, and indolence.

Right: Burke said in 1765: [A long quotation follows].

Right: The case was this: I wouldn't and he couldn't.

Right: He did it in the following way: First, he cut an ash bough, which he bent into a hoop. Then . . .

Use after a salutation

258. A colon may be used after the salutation of a business letter.

Right: Dear Sir: Gentlemen: My dear Mr. Harris:

Use in titles, references, numerals

259. A colon is used between the parts of titles, references, and numerals.

Right: *The Ordeal of Richard Feverel:* a History of a Father and Son.

Right: *Proverbs* 28 : 20.

Right: 6:15 P.M.

Misuse before informal series, etc.

260. A colon is not used before an informal series or before an indirect quotation.

Wrong: You should wear: a heavy dress and a warm coat.

Right: You should wear a heavy dress and a warm coat.

Wrong: She said: that she could not come.

Right: She said that she could not come.

The Question Mark (?)

Direct, not indirect questions

261. Use the question mark after a direct question, but not after an indirect question.

Bad: He asked what caused the accident?

Right: He asked what caused the accident.

Right: He asked, "What caused the accident?"

Right: Will he come? and how long will he stay?

Use for conjectural statement

262. Use the question mark between parentheses to indicate that a statement is conjectural. It should not be used as a notice of humor or irony. (Cf. Rules 284 *e* and 388.)

Right: This event occurred in 411 B.C.(?)

Wrong: After his polite (?) remarks, we have nothing to say.

Right: After his polite remarks, we have nothing to say.

The Exclamation Mark (!)

Use of exclamation mark

263. Use the exclamation mark after a sentence, a virtual sentence, an exclamation in question form, or an interjection, to indicate strong emotion.

Right: I cannot and will not believe it!

Right: A pretty situation! What! How dare you say so!

The Dash (—)

Interruptions

264. Use the dash —

(*a*) **When a sentence is abruptly broken off before its completion.**

Right: If the scythe is rusty — by the way, did you get that scythe at Pumphrey's?

Parenthetic use

(*b*) **As a substitute for parenthesis marks.** (See Rule 267.)

Right: I dressed — you may not believe this, but it is true — in ten minutes.

With summarizing words

(*c*) **Before a sentence-element summarizing the preceding part of a sentence.**

Right: If you go to bed early, get up early, never loiter or trifle, always employ periods of enforced idleness in serious thought or instructive reading — if you do all this, you will be derided by the Omicron Pi Chi fraternity.

Before an expression having the effect of an afterthought

(*d*) **Before a repetition or modification having the effect of an afterthought.**

Right: Oh yes, he was polite — polite as a Chesterfield — obsequious in fact.

When a sentence-member is set apart on the page

(*e*) **After the word immediately preceding a sentence-element that is set apart on the page from the first part of the sentence.** For illustration, see the text of Rules 242, 255, 264, 270, 276, and 284, and the *Right* examples under Rule 350.

NOTE. — If another mark of punctuation precedes the sentence-member set apart, the dash may be dispensed with. See the *Right* examples under Rules 348 and 349.

Before appositives

(*f*) **Before an appositive that is prepared for by the preceding words; or before an appositive that is separated by several words from its principal substantive.**

Right: I wish to ask regarding one particular law — the pension law.

Right: One of my old classmates hailed me on the street — a man named Roberts.

Comma and dash

265. Commas may precede both dashes if a comma would be required were the material within the dashes to be omitted. Usage permits the omission of commas with dashes, however, even when the commas would be required if the dashes and the matter between them were omitted.

Right: If you should see him, — you might meet him on the train, — give him my message.

Right: If you should see him — you might meet him on the train — give him my message. [If you should see him give him my message.]

Right: The ruined spire, rising above the deserted village, — it has not been rebuilt since the war, — marked the end of our journey. [The ruined spire, rising above the deserted village, marked the end of our journey.]

Right: The ruined spire, rising above the deserted village — it had not been rebuilt since the war — marked the end of our journey.

NOTE. — The comma and the dash together are more emphatic than the dash alone. For this reason, a comma is sometimes used before a dash preceding a repeated word.

Right: Differences of course there are between the human type as developed in different regions of the country, — differences moral and intellectual as well as physical. — JAMES BRYCE.

Indiscriminate use

266. Do not use dashes indiscriminately, where commas, periods, or other marks of punctuation belong. The free use of dashes as substitutes for other kinds of punctuation is a careless, slipshod, and debilitating practice that should be avoided like any excess.

Parentheses ( )

Indirectly related material

267. Material that is indirectly related to the main thought of the sentence may be put into parentheses. Parentheses, dashes, and commas are all used to set off parenthetical material. (See Rules 242 *d* and 264 *b*.) Commas are used for material closely related to the main thought, dashes and parentheses for material more remotely related. Dashes should be used for informal material, and parentheses for formal.

Right: She had, as strong natures always have, an unbounded confidence in her luck. — J. R. Green.

Right: And meantime there goes the idler, who began life along with them — by your leave — a different picture. — Stevenson.

Right: The interpretation of "nature" for its own sake (in the narrower sense in which "nature" is opposed to man) is a modern and romantic development that would have been unintelligible to a Greek. — G. L. Dickinson.

Relative position of other marks

268. When the parentheses and another mark of punctuation occur together —

(*a*) **The mark of punctuation follows the second parenthesis of the pair when this mark applies to the sentence containing the parentheses and not to the passage in parentheses.** Note that the mark of punctuation should not precede the first parenthesis.

Wrong: I will ask him by telephone, (assuming he has a telephone) and I think he will agree (though I may be mistaken.)

Wrong: I will ask him by telephone (assuming he has a telephone,) and I think he will agree, (though I may be mistaken.)

Right: I will ask him by telephone (assuming he has a telephone), and I think he will agree (though I may be mistaken).

Right: The general law, then, respecting just or economical exchange, is simply this: There must be advantage on both sides (or if only advantage on one, at least no disadvantage on the other) to the persons exchanging; and just payment for his time, intelligence, and labor, to any intermediate person effecting the transaction (commonly called a merchant); and whatever advantage there is on either side, and whatever pay is given to the intermediate person, should be thoroughly known to all concerned. — RUSKIN.

(*b*) **The mark of punctuation precedes the second parenthesis of the pair when this mark applies to the passage in parentheses.**

Right: This essay ("Literature and Science") was first published in 1882.

Right: In general, the war powers of the President cannot be precisely defined, but must remain somewhat vague and uncertain. (See Wilson's *Constitutional Government in the United States.*)

Right: I will ask him by telephone (I do not wish to see him!) and I think he will agree (though I may be mistaken).

Incorrect use of commas with parentheses

269. A comma should not be used with parentheses unless it would be required were there no parenthetic matter.

Wrong: The sheriff gave him (as his oath required), the most effective help. [The sentence "The sheriff gave him the most effective help" requires no comma after "him."]

Right: The sheriff gave him (as his oath required) the most effective help.

270. Do not use parentheses to enclose matter that is not parenthetical. Do not use them — Misuse in general

(*a*) **To emphasize a word; italicize.** (See Rule 379.) Misuse for emphasis

Bad: "The man (who) they thought was dead surprised them" is correct.
Right: "The man *who* they thought was dead surprised them" is correct.

(*b*) **To enclose a word about which something is said as a word. Such words should be italicized.** (See Rule 379.) Misuse with words discussed

Wrong: (Party) is often incorrectly used for (person).
Right: *Party* is often incorrectly used for *person*.

(*c*) **To indicate the title of a book; italicize.** (See Rule 379.) Misuse with literary titles

Wrong: Garland's story (Among the Corn Rows) is pathetic.
Right: Garland's story *Among the Corn Rows* is pathetic.

(*d*) **To enclose a letter, number, or symbol, unless it is used parenthetically.** Misuse with letters and symbols

Bad: A (v) shaped plate of steel.
Right: A v-shaped plate of steel.

Bad: It is marked with the figure (2).
Right: It is marked with the figure 2.

(*e*) **To cancel a word or passage.** (See Rule 342.) Misuse for canceling

Brackets [ ]

271. Square brackets, [ ], are used to enclose a word or words interpolated in a quotation by the person quoting. Words enclosed in parentheses, ( ), occurring in a quotation, are understood to belong to the quotation; words enclosed in brackets, [ ], are understood to be interpolated by the writer quoting. Words interpolated in a quotation

Right: "I would gladly," writes Landor, "see our language enriched . . . At present [in the nineteenth century] we recur to the Latin and reject the Saxon . . ."

Quotation Marks (" ")

Note. — See Rules 155–158 for the paragraphing of direct quotations and of dialogues, and Rule 371 for the capitalization of direct quotations and of dialogues.

For direct, not indirect, quotations

272. Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation, but not to enclose an indirect quotation.

Wrong: He said "that he was grieved."
Right: He said that he was grieved.
Right: He said, "I am grieved."

Omission

273. Do not fail to put quotation marks at the beginning and the end of every quotation.

Misuse within a quotation

274. Do not punctuate sentences of a single speech as if they were separate speeches.

Bad: She said, "Is this the truth?" "Then I must tell my husband." "He ought to know."
Right: She said, "Is this the truth? Then I must tell my husband. He ought to know."

Note, however, that sentences that are not parts of a single speech should be punctuated as separate quotations.

Right: He antagonized nearly every one there by such sweeping statements as: "All of the officers were crooks; they got as much as they could by graft"; and "Ireland deserves all that she gets from England."
Right: We heard such questions as these: "Can I get a taxi?" "Oh! do you think I have missed the train?" "When does the next train go South?"

Quotations with *said he* interpolated:

275. When an expression like *said he* is interpolated within a quotation or placed after it, the following rules apply:

Said he: excluded

(*a*) **The expression should not be included within the quotation marks at the beginning and the end of the quotation.**

Wrong: "If that is true, he said, I am lost."
Right: "If that is true," he said, "I am lost."

Marks after part preceding *said he*

(*b*) **The quoted words preceding the expression should be followed by a question mark or an exclamation mark if they form a complete interrogatory or exclamatory sentence; otherwise by a comma; never by a period or semicolon.** (See Rule 276 *e*.)

Wrong: "Will you help." he asked?
Right: "Will you help?" he asked.

Wrong: "I will help" he answered.
Right: "I will help," he answered.

Wrong: "I will help you;" he said, "you deserve it."
Right: "I will help you," he said; "you deserve it."

Note. — If a question is interrupted by the expression, the question mark is placed at the end of the sentence.

Right: "Are you planning to teach," he asked, "after you have taken your degree?"

Marks after *said he* Period

(*c*) **If the quoted words preceding the expression form a complete sentence, a period should follow the expression, even if a question or exclamation mark follows the words preceding.**

Wrong: "Won't you come?" she said, " we need you."
Right: "Won't you come?" she said. "We need you."

Semicolon

(*d*) **If, but for the expression, the quoted words preceding the expression would be followed by a semicolon, a semicolon should follow the expression.**

Right: "He didn't go to Canada," the teller informed me; "he went to Mexico."

Comma

(*e*) **In every case in which no other mark of punctuation is required** (according to Rules *b*, *c*, and *d*, above)

after the expression, a comma should follow the expression.

Right: "I am," growled the assassin, "your doomsman."

Relative position of other marks of punctuation

276. When a quotation mark and another mark of punctuation both follow the same word —

(*a*) **A dash, a question mark, or an exclamation mark should stand first if it applies to the quotation and not to the sentence containing the quotation.** (See Rules 275 *b*, and 276 *e*.)

Wrong: He said, "Are you hurt"?
Right: He said, "Are you hurt?"

Right: "I am in such a hurry that —" she began, but she was gone before she had finished.

Right: "God knows!" said I, at my wit's end; "it may be one of the royal family, for aught I know, for they are all stout gentlemen!"
— IRVING.

(*b*) **The quotation mark should stand first if the dash, question mark, or exclamation mark applies, not to the quotation, but to the sentence containing the quotation.**

Right: "I do not mean that I want to be poor; but there was a middle state" — so she was pleased to ramble on — "in which I am sure we were a great deal happier." — LAMB.

Right: Did the letter say, "Come tonight at ten"?

Right: It was the last word of the whole record. It ended with "dust"! and that is exactly what happens in life. — STRINDBERG.

Right: Yes, he said "Please come if you can"; but what he meant was, "Stay where you are"!

(*c*) **No comma or period should be used in addition to the quotation mark and the question or exclamation mark.**

Wrong: He cried "Fire!", and began to run.
Right: He cried "Fire!" and began to run.

Wrong: Did he say, "I object."?
Right: Did he say, "I object"?

(*d*) **A period or a comma should always precede, not follow, the quotation mark.** Period or comma always inside

Right: "If you have a light," said John, "give it to me."

Right: He asked if I carried what he called "the makings," but I could not satisfy him.

(*e*) **A semicolon or a colon should always follow, not precede, the quotation mark.** Colon or semicolon always outside

Right: I have seen that "abode of poverty"; and the "poverty" is truly marvelous.

Right: I have this to say regarding the man's "abject poverty": that it is fictitious.

(*f*) **Ellipsis marks and the abbreviation *etc.* indicating an omission from a quoted passage precede the quotation mark.**

Right: "It is not given to us all to discover great general truths that are a light to all men and to future generations. . . ." L. S. Mills.

277. Titles of literary, musical, and artistic works and of periodicals may be inclosed in quotation marks, but the preferred practice is to italicize titles of whole publications or works and to use quotation marks for the titles of chapters, articles, etc. (See Rule 380.) Titles

Right: The second chapter of Meredith's *Evan Harrington* is entitled "The Heritage of the Son."

Quotation within a quotation

278. A quotation within a quotation is marked by single quotation marks; one within that by double marks.

Wrong: I repeated those lines of Tennyson,
"Thou shalt hear the "Never, never," whispered by the phantom years,
And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears,"
until I knew them by heart.

Right: I repeated those lines of Tennyson,
"Thou shalt hear the 'Never, never,' whispered by the phantom years,
And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears,"
until I knew them by heart.

Wrong: "Then," continued Brightman, "the captain shouted, "Cast off!"

Right: "Then," continued Brightman, "the captain shouted, 'Cast off!'"

Quotations of several paragraphs

279. When a quotation consists of several paragraphs (see Rule 349), quotation marks should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph, and at the end of the quotation; not elsewhere, except in accordance with Rule 275 *a*. For illustration, see the example under Rule 349.

Author's words in indirect quotation

280. Quotation marks are used for direct borrowings and not for the ideas of an author put into other words. If, however, the author's words are embedded in an indirect quotation, they should be quoted.

Right: Newman's "great writer" is not one who can merely turn out "swelling sentences," but one who "has something to say and knows how to say it."

Quoted sentences in a context

281. Quoted sentences may be embedded in a context without capitals or periods. (A period would,

of course, be required if the quoted sentence came at the end of the context.)

> Right: Bacon's aphoristic style can be illustrated by such sentences as these: "studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability"; "reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man"; and "revenge is a kind of wild justice; which the more man's nature runs to, the more ought law to weed it out."

With unfamiliar technical terms

282. Quotation marks may sometimes be used to mark a technical term presumably unfamiliar to the reader.

> Right: "Copy" for the printer should be prepared with great care.
> Right: That kind of rhyme is called "feminine rhyme."

Familiar technical terms

NOTE. — No such marking is needed for technical or quasi-technical terms that are perfectly familiar to the reader. None is ordinarily needed, for instance, for *wire-puller, boss, off-year, touch-down, kick-off, haze, corner the market.*

Slang and nicknames

283. Quotation marks may sometimes be used to indicate apology for slang or nicknames. But note:

Good English mistaken for slang

(*a*) **No such apology is needed** for *hard hit, brace up, rough it, to duck, to oust, to loaf, to cut a figure, the whys and wherefores, the forties, willynilly, day dreams, proxy, bugbear, humbug, hoax, tomfoolery, bamboozle, whoop, ninny, milksop, skinflint, parson,* and other good English expressions wrongly supposed to be slang.

Apology out of place

(*b*) **In a humorous or colloquial context such apology for slang or for nicknames is artistically inconsistent with the style, and obstructs the legitimate purpose of the style.**

Inartistic: When radicalism "threw up its hat" for "Rob" Rowland, "rough-house," and reform, conservatism "took to the tall timbers." "Rob," though "cock of the walk" in the capital, has been "sassed" by his home paper, which attributes his influence to hypnotism and "hot air."

Improved in effectiveness: When radicalism threw up its hat for Rob Rowland, rough-house, and reform, conservatism took to the tall timbers. Rob, though cock of the walk in the capital, has been sassed by his home paper, which attributes his influence to hypnotism and hot air.

Nicknames that are virtually proper names

(*c*) **The nicknames of persons in real life or in fiction who are known by nicknames altogether, or as commonly as by their proper names, should not be enclosed in quotation marks.**

Wrong: "Cal" Coolidge, "Battling" Nelson, "Al" Smith, "Babe" Ruth and "Bill" Hart, were present.

Right: Cal Coolidge, Battling Nelson, Al Smith, Babe Ruth, and Bill Hart were present.

Wrong: Two women, "the Duchess" and "Mother" Shipton, and two men, Mr. Oakhurst and "Uncle Billy," were ordered to leave town.

Right: Two women, the Duchess and Mother Shipton, and two men, Mr. Oakhurst and Uncle Billy, were ordered to leave town.

Wrong: As I was "bucking" for "Perky's" "quiz," I was interrupted by "Fatty" Holmes and "Smudge" Williams, who refused to "clear out." [See Rule *b*, above.]

Right: As I was cramming for Perky's quiz, I was interrupted by Fatty Holmes and Smudge Williams, who refused to clear out.

Sundry misuses: With the title of a composition

284. Do not use quotation marks—

(*a*) **To enclose the title at the head of a composition, unless the title is a quotation.**

(*b*) **To enclose proper names, including names of animals.** With proper names

Wrong: I expect to go to "Oberammergau."
Right: I expect to go to Oberammergau.

Wrong: "Thomas" and "Rover" were good friends.
Right: Thomas and Rover were good friends.

(*c*) **To enclose proverbial expressions that do not constitute grammatically and logically complete statements.** With proverbs

Wrong: It was "nipped in the bud."
Right: It was nipped in the bud.

Wrong: He seemed to be "as mad as a March hare."
Right: He seemed to be as mad as a March hare.

(*d*) **To enclose words coined *extempore*.** With words coined *extempore*

Wrong: The manning and "womaning" of the enterprise will be difficult.
Right: The manning and womaning of the enterprise will be difficult.

Wrong: It is not bronchitis or peritonitis or any of the "itises."
Right: It is not bronchitis or peritonitis or any of the itises.

(*e*) **To serve the undignified and inartistic purpose of labeling your own humor or irony.** (Cf. Rules 262 and 388.) For labeling humor

Bad: Such is the ardor of this "pious" Hotspur.
Right: Such is the ardor of this pious Hotspur.

Bad: Senator Platt's speech on the bill was a sort of "funeral oration."
Right: Senator Platt's speech on the bill was a sort of funeral oration.

(*f*) **To enclose expressions which are quotations in form only.** With quotations in form only

Right: He resolved to himself: now, I'll hand in all of my themes on time.

Right: She thought to herself: I'll never do that again.

Right: She said to herself: I might have known that would happen.

Use without any reason

(*g*) **For no reason at all.**

Bad: If the Creator in his "power and munificence" is good to me, I shall gain "distinguished success."

Right: If the Creator in his power and munificence is good to me, I shall gain distinguished success.

The Apostrophe (')

Possessive case

285. Use the apostrophe to indicate the possessive case.

Right: Milton's poems; the girl's hat; the lady's dress; the ladies' dresses.

Position of the apostrophe

286. In the possessive singular of a noun an apostrophe should precede the inflectional *s;* *e.g.*, "the boy's cap." **In the possessive plural of a noun of which the nominative plural ends in *s*, an apostrophe should follow the final *s;*** *e.g.*, "the boys' caps." **In the possessive plural of other nouns, an apostrophe should precede the final *s;*** *e.g.*, *men's, women's, children's, oxen's.*

Nouns ending in *s*

287. Do not form the possessive singular of a noun ending in *s* by putting an apostrophe before or after the *s;* add *'s* to the complete word. If a word of two or more syllables ends in *s* and is not accented on the last syllable, the possessive may be formed by adding either the apostrophe or *'s.*

Wrong: Dicken's novels. Burn's poems.

Right: Dickens' novels, or Dickens's novels.

Right: Burns's poems.

Right: For conscience' sake. For righteousness' sake.

Misuse with *its*, etc.

288. Never use an apostrophe with the possessive adjectives *its, hers, ours, yours, theirs.* The form *it's* is a contraction for *it is*. The possessive singular of *one* should be written *one's* and the possessive plural *ones'*.

NOTE. — Do not use the possessive with the intensives and reflexives.

Wrong: one'self
Right: oneself

With inanimate objects

289. If the possessive case is used for inanimate objects, the apostrophe should not be omitted. (See Rule 217.)

Right: an hour's delay; a day's work; two weeks' vacation, a hair's breadth.

With contractions

290. In a contracted word an apostrophe should stand in the place of the omitted letter or letters, not elsewhere.

Wrong: Hav'nt, do'nt, does'nt, ca'nt, is'nt, oclock.
Right: Haven't, don't, doesn't, can't, isn't, o'clock.

In forming plurals

291. The plural of letters of the alphabet and of numerical symbols is formed by adding *'s* to the letter or symbol. The plural of a word considered *as a word* may also be formed in the same way. But the regular plural of a noun should never be formed by adding *'s*. The apostrophe is commonly omitted from the plural of figures referring to interest-bearing bonds.

Right: His *U's* were like *V's* and his *2's* like *Z's*.
Right: In your letter there are too many *I's* and also too many *and's*.

Wrong: The Powers's, the Jones's, the Waters's and the Rogers's sold piano's and folio's.
Right: The Powerses, the Joneses, the Waterses, and the Rogerses sold pianos and folios.
Right: Rock Island 4s.

The Hyphen (-)

Compound words

292. Hyphenate an adjective formed of two or more words when used before the noun. Examples:

(*a*) (Noun plus adjective) *dirt-cheap, coal-black, water-tight.*

(*b*) (Adjective plus noun or noun plus noun, plus *d* or *ed*) *bright-eyed, strong-minded, silver-tongued, bull-necked, eagle-eyed.*

(*c*) (Adverb plus participle, or numeral plus noun) *far-reaching, well-meaning, well-educated, worn-out, three-inch.*

(*d*) (Participle preceded by a substantive denoting means or agency) *self-possessed, iron-clad, tear-stained.*

(*e*) (Noun, adjective, participle, or gerund preceded by the name of an object acted upon or concerned) *tax-collector, dog-catcher, self-control, labor-saving.*

(*f*) (Groups of words which are to be read as a single part of speech, when the omission of the hyphen might obscure the sense) *a matter-of-fact statement, my right-hand man, a high-school graduate, a month-old baby, an all-around man.*

Note. — *To-day, to-night, to-morrow, good-bye* are sometimes written with a hyphen.

No simple rule can be given for determining whether a compound word should be hyphenated or written "solid." One must simply learn, from observation and from dictionaries, what is the correct practice in each case. Note that the following words should not be hyphenated: *together, without, nevertheless, moreover, inasmuch, instead, childhood, farewell, wardrobe, chipmunk, nickname, surname, midnight, railroad, misprint, pronoun, semicolon, withstand, outstretch, rewrite.*

293. Do not join an adverb in *ly* to an adjective or participle; *e.g.*, *carefully laid plans.*

294. Use a hyphen between the numerator and the denominator of a fraction written in words unless either part is written with a hyphen; *three-fourths, three twenty-fourths, nineteenths, thirty-one fortieths.* Do not hyphenate *one half* in "He gave me one half and kept the other half."

295. Usually hyphenate compounds of *fellow, father, mother, brother, sister, daughter, great, life, world, ex, pan, ultra,* and of a noun derived from a transitive verb.

Examples: *fellow-beings, father-in-law, mother-tongue, great-grandmother, life-interest, world-power, ex-President Taft, pan-American, ultra-violet, story-teller.*

296. Use a hyphen in compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine. Use with numerals

Right: twenty-six; sixty-three; but one hundred thirty.

297. In dividing a word at the end of a line (see Rules 352–355 below), place a hyphen after the first element of the word, and there only; never put a hyphen at the beginning of a line. At the beginning of a line

Miscellaneous Rules

298. When *such as* is used to introduce one or more short examples, it is usually preceded by a comma. Punctuation with *such as*

When it introduces a long or complicated example or series of examples, it may be preceded by a semicolon or dash. It is usually followed by no mark of punctuation unless a parenthetical expression is inserted between the *such as* and the word that it introduces.

Right: I read many historical novels, such as *Romola, Rienzi,* and *Quo Vadis.*

Right: He asked us about a number of rules of punctuation: such as the use of the comma with non-restrictive relative clauses; the use of the semicolon between clauses of a compound sentence, etc.

Punctuation with *namely, viz.*, etc.

299. In introducing an example or an explanation with one of the expressions *namely, viz., e.g., that is,* and *i.e.,* apply the following rules:

(*a*) **The expression should be followed by a comma.**

Wrong: I selected it for two reasons namely: because it was well made, and because it was inexpensive.

Right: I selected it for two reasons: namely, because it was well made and because it was inexpensive.

Note. — When the expression introduces a sentence or a principal clause, it may be followed by a colon.

Right: Dickens's novels were influential in bringing about social reform in England; for example: the measures for the treatment of the poor were greatly improved through *Oliver Twist* and *Our Mutual Friend;* the debtors' laws were amended through *Little Dorrit*; the procedure in the court of Chancery was remedied through *Bleak House;* and the conditions in boys' schools were changed through *David Copperfield.*

(*b*) **When the expression introduces a sentence or a principal clause, the expression should be preceded by a period or a semicolon** (see Rules 253, 255 *a*).

Right: There is a vital difference between them; *i.e.*, the Greek is an artist, and the Roman is a statesman.

(*c*) **When the expression introduces a merely appositive member, or several such, the expression should be preceded by a semicolon** (see Rule 255 *e*), **by a dash** (see Rule 264 *f*), **or by a colon** (see Rule 257).

Right: They arrested the man who was really responsible — namely, the cashier.

Right: There are three parties: namely, Tories, Whigs, and Radicals.

NOTE. — When the expression and the words it introduces are enclosed in parentheses, the foregoing Rules *b* and *c* do not apply.

Marks of punctuation at the beginning of lines

300. Never put a period, a comma, a semicolon, a colon, an exclamation point, or a question mark at the beginning of a line; put it instead at the end of the preceding line.

NOTE. — A dash may be placed either at the end of a line or at the beginning of the following line.

EXERCISE 1

General exercise in punctuation

Punctuate the following sentences, or correct any errors in the punctuation already there. State the reason for the use of each mark of punctuation.

1. [Newspaper headline] No jury trial bill is passed by lower house. 2. He was angry at what he called my high pressure salesmanship so I told him what he could do about it. 3. It is true that a few freshmen who have not yet been instructed in the rudiments of college life have broken this ruling but once they are enlightened they too refrain from smoking on the campus. 4. I cannot agree with the author in this statement That government is best which governs not at all. 5. Jim ran up the stairs as fast as he could go his only hope was to reach his mothers room before his sister could overtake him. 6. Well I must be going he said after a long pause. 7. If every one thought as he thought the world would be two hundred years behind. 8. For four years we struggled with mathematics languages and many other subjects. 9. After two wagons have been loaded the machine has been set and the belts have all been put on their pulleys then the threshing begins. 10. At Commencement time a meeting place for the alumni is needed also a place for visitors to gather in a good Union Building would be most useful for these purposes.

Punctuation

11. Those who wish to play golf on Sunday must go to the country club golf course which is the only one open on Sunday. 12. Having only a small business this merchant had no moving van so the members of the play cast had to hire a truck to haul the furniture. 13. My opinions what is the use of my having any opinions my parents only laugh at my opinions. 14. By this new process more knives could be produced in the same amount of time. Thus increasing the output and the quality of our product. 15. You believe that college has changed since you went to school well so it has but not as you think. 16. By the way do you remember Walter Edmonds he sails on June the sixth on the Ile de France. 17. Freshmen who like to play usually go home to stay at the end of the first semester. 18. Even a gentleman however does not always have a good disposition but when he is not feeling well or when luck seems to be against him he does not allow his feelings to control his actions that is he is master of his emotions he does not allow his mood to become apparent. 19. I want you Mother to realize that I do not consider college a place for a good time only. 20. Our course in rhetoric included many things besides rhetoric for example we often discussed politics or religion or philosophy.

21. An education used to be a luxury now it is a necessity. 22. The meadows were an early green the trees were in half leaf a few birds were back from their southern winter and we were planning our summer vacation. 23. The Dean looked up; a half-smile on his face. 24. There has been some mistake, Mr. Smith, I did not cut class yesterday. 25. I am planning to take the examinations in the fall, therefore I shall spend most of the summer studying. 26. Then I saw the dark side of this picture, called Life. 27. I think that it is advisable to bring one or two semi formal dresses because you never can tell you might need them in September. 28. There was no school the next day and it was only eightthirty too early to go home consequently we took plenty of time to decide what to do. 29. Friendship is I think contrary to popular opinion more rare than anything else in the world. 30. When the temple was first completed many residents of Salt Lake City not members of the Mormon Church were shown through it but since it's dedication no visitors have been admitted.

Punctuation

31. I shall be glad to leave still I shall miss my friends. 32. This ruling would affect two kinds of people those who would be able to get a college education in spite of cuts and those whose college course would be shortened to one semester on account of cuts. 33. I had always liked oh more than liked her. 34. His text was 1 Corinthians 16 1 to 9. 35. Thomas Hardys first popular success Far from the Madding Crowd appeared anonymously in the *Cornhill Magazine.* 36. Its I come on lets go. 37. Faces in the fire will smile at him mock him frown at him call and repulse or if there be no faces the smoke will take a thousand shapes and lead his thoughts by delightful paths to the land of reverie or he may watch the innermost heart of the fire burn blue especially if there is frost in the air or poker in hand he may coax a coal into increased vivacity this is an agreeable diversion suggesting the mediaeval idea of the Devil in his domain. — E. V. Lucas. 38. She wrote the letter for her mother was ill. 39. A strong west wind filled the sails. 40. It shivered from head to foot and its teeth chattered and as it stared at me persecutor devil ghost whatever it thought me it made with its whining mouth as if it were snapping at me like a worried dog. — Dickens.

41. Shovel a man of seven had said None of your lip. You weren't never at Thrums yourself. Tommy's reply was Ain't my mother a Thrums woman? Shovel who had but one eye and that bloodshot fixed it on him threateningly. The Thames is in London he said. Cos they wouldnt not have it in Thrums replied Tommy. 'Amstead 'Eaths in London, I tell yer Shovel said. The cemetery is in Thrums said Tommy. There aint no queens in Thrums anyhow. There is the Auld Licht minister. Well then if you jest seed Trafalgar Square. If you jest seed the Thrums town house. St Pauls aint in Thrums. It would like to be. After reflecting Shovel said in desperation Well then my father were once at a hanging. Tommy replied instantly It were my father what was hanged. — J. M. Barrie. 42. They had much in common namely their devotion to their children their interest in public affairs and their love of art. 43. I had to answer a number of questions such as what my major and minor subjects were, what athletics I had taken part in, what my church affili-

Punctuation

ations were etc. 44. After two years delay our government sent a reply. 45. My career was decided upon, I was to be a great novelist. 46. Old Cato whose De Re Rustica is my Cultivator says and the only translation I have seen makes sheer nonsense of the passage, When you think of getting a farm turn it thus in your mind not to buy greedily nor spare your pains to look at it and do not think it enough to go around it once. The oftener you go there the more it will please you if it is good. I think I shall not buy greedily but go round and round it as long as I live and be buried in it first that it may please me the more at last. — H. D. Thoreau. 49. I told her what else could I say to her that she would be well enough to go home very soon. 50. Do you recall that Hazlitt said that the soul of a journey is liberty perfect liberty to think feel do just as one pleases.

Exercise 2

Punctuation

Punctuate the following passage, stating the reason for the use of each mark of punctuation.

Call me Ishmael some years ago never mind how long precisely having little or no money in my purse and nothing particular to interest me on shore I thought I would sail about a little and see the watery part of the world it is a way I have of driving off the spleen and regulating the circulation whenever I find myself growing grim about the mouth whenever it is damp drizzly November in my soul whenever I find myself involuntarily pausing before coffin warehouses and bringing up the rear of every funeral I meet and especially whenever my hypos get such an upper hand of me that it requires a strong moral principle to prevent me from deliberately stepping into the street and methodically knocking peoples hats off then I account it high time to get to sea as soon as I can this is my substitute for pistol and ball with a philosophical flourish Cato throws himself upon his sword I quietly take to the ship there is nothing surprising in this if they but knew it almost all men in their degree some time or other cherish very nearly the same feelings toward the ocean with me. — Herman Melville.

SPELLING

The way to reform bad spelling is to work at it determinedly, correcting a few faults at a time. In most cases, the bad speller does not *see* words correctly; his mental photograph of them is wrong, or blurred. Sometimes his vision is defective and he needs to visit an oculist. In many cases he does not *hear* and *pronounce* the words correctly; he fails to include syllables, he transposes or omits letters, and he confuses one word with another. A misspelling should never be hastily corrected. The student should look up the correct spelling and fix it in memory by careful observation and by writing it out. He should keep a list of words he misspells, and should refer to it regularly.

Careful study of the following rules, and of the lists in Rule 319 and in Appendix C will aid the student to recognize his misspellings, and will provide him with principles by means of which he can remember more easily the correct spellings.

Accurate pronunciation

301. Careless pronunciation is often the cause of misspelling.

(*a*) **Do not mispronounce vowels in unaccented syllables.** Examples: adv*i*s*e*r, begg*a*r, conqu*e*r*o*r, d*e*spair, d*e*scription, cabb*a*ge, stud*e*nt, sep*a*rate, apol*o*gy, d*i*vide, priv*i*lege, Ill*i*nois.

(*b*) **Do not omit vowels.** Examples: bound*a*ry, re*a*lly, int*e*resting, lab*o*ratory.

(*c*) **Do not add vowels.** Examples: disastrous (not disast*e*rous), hindrance (not hind*e*rance), mischievous (not mischiev*i*ous), umbrella (not umb*e*rella).

(*d*) **Do not omit consonants.** Examples: can*d*idate, gover*n*ment, proba*b*ly, reco*g*nize. Watch the *g* in the suffix *ing*, as in goin*g*, doin*g*, etc.

NOTE. — As an aid in remembering whether a consonant is doubled or not, observe that a double consonant usually indicates that the preceding vowel is short as in *hopping* (compare with *hoping*), *occasion* (compare with *omission*).

(*e*) **Do not omit the *al* in adverbs derived from adjectives ending in *al*.** Examples: accident*al*ly, occasion*al*ly, gener*al*ly. (See Rule 312.)

(*f*) **Do not transpose letters.** Examples: *pre*scription (not *per*scription), *per*spiration (not *pre*spiration), *per*form (not *pre*form), *pre*fer (not *per*fer), tra*ge*dy (not tra*de*gy), pre*ju*dice (not pred*uj*ice), irre*le*vant (not irre*ve*lant).

Doubling final consonants: General rule

302. A monosyllable or a word accented on the last syllable, if it ends in one consonant preceded by one vowel, doubles the final consonant when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added. Thus: *bid, bidden; quiz, quizzes; drop, dropped, dropping; glad, gladder, gladdest; man, mannish; tin, tinny.*

Benefit, etc.

NOTE 1. — The final consonant in words not accented on the last syllable is not usually doubled before a suffix; thus: *benefit, benefited.* In the words *worship* and *kidnap* and words like *bevel, counsel, quarrel*, etc., the final consonant *may* be doubled, but it is better not to double it; *e.g., worshiper, worshiping, worshiped; kidnaped; traveler, traveling, traveled*, etc.

Worship, travel, etc.

Suffix beginning with consonant

NOTE 2. — A final consonant is not doubled before a suffix beginning with a consonant. Thus: *fit, fitting*, but *fitness.*

Receding accent

303. This rule does not apply to words in which the accent is shifted to a preceding syllable. Thus: *refer, referred*, but *reference; confer, conferring*, but

conference. But *excel, excellence.* Nor does it affect: *chagrin, chagrined; transfer, transferable; infer, inferable; gas, gaseous.*

304. Words ending in *c* add *k* before a suffix beginning with *e*, *i*, or *y*. Thus: *picnic, picnicked; traffic, trafficking; panic, panicky.* *Picnicked,* etc.

305. Words ending in silent *e* usually drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel. Thus: *love, lovable; stone, stony.* Hence, a verb ending in silent *e* drops *e* when *ing* is added. Thus: *shine, shining.* Dropping final *e:* General rule before *ing*

306. An exception to Rule 305: Words ending in *ce* or *ge* do not drop the *e* when *ous* or *able* is added. Thus: *notice, noticeable; outrage, outrageous.* Derivatives from words in *ce* and *ge*

NOTE. — *C* and *g* in words of French, Latin, and Greek derivation usually have the soft sound before *e*, *i*, and *y*, as *cede, genial, civil, giant, cyanide, gymnasium;* elsewhere they have the hard sound, as *calendar, Gallic, code, gorgon, acute, gusto.* (*Get, geese, gew-gaw, geld, giddy, gift, gig, giggle, gild, begin, gird, girdle, girl,* and *give* are not of the above-mentioned derivation.) Notice how the principle applies to *accent, accident, flaccid, occiput, accept, accurate, desiccate, except, excuse.* On account of this principle, the *e* must be retained in such words as *noticeable* and *courageous*, in order to keep the soft sound of *c* and *g*.

307. A noun ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms the plural in *ies;* as *library, libraries.* A noun ending in *y* preceded by a vowel forms the plural in *ys;* as *valley, valleys.* Change of *y* to *i:* Nouns

308. A verb ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms its present third singular in *ies* and its past in *ied*. Thus: *rely, relies, relied; marry, marries, married.* Verbs

309. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant usually change the *y* to *i* before a suffix. Thus: *happy,* *Happiness,* etc.

Studying, etc.

happiness; beauty, beautiful; busy, business. But verbs ending in *y* do not drop the *y* before *ing*. Thus: *study, studying; hurry, hurrying.*

Change of *ie* to *y*

310. Verbs ending in *ie* change *ie* to *y* before *ing*. Thus: *lie, lying.*

Suddenness, etc.

311. Adjectives ending in *n* do not drop the *n* before *ness*. Thus: *sudden, suddenness; green, greenness.*

Finally, etc.

312. Words ending in *l* do not drop the *l* before *ly*. Thus: *final, finally; cool, coolly.*

Plurals in *s* and *es*

313. (*a*) **Nouns ending in a consonant add *es* to form the plural when the plural has an extra syllable; when the plural has no extra syllable, they add only *s*.** Thus: *lass, lasses; lad, lads.*

Leaf, thief, etc.

(*b*) **Most words like *leaf, thief, self* form the plural in *ves*.** Thus: *leaves, thieves, ourselves.* **Some words ending in *f* form the plural in *fs*.** Thus: *beliefs, chiefs, griefs, hoofs, scarfs, dwarfs.*

Nouns in *o*

(*c*) **Some nouns ending in *o* add *es* to form the plural.** Thus: *buffaloes, calicoes, echoes, mosquitoes, negroes, potatoes, volcanoes, dominoes, embargoes, heroes, jingoes, mulattoes, noes, tomatoes, tornadoes.* **Some add only *s*.** Thus: *banjos, dynamos, Eskimos, pianos, silos, solos, sopranos, zeros.* **A few plurals may be written either *os* or *oes*.**

Letters, symbols, etc.

(*d*) **The plurals of letters of the alphabet, of numerical symbols, and of a word considered *as a word* are formed by adding *'s*.** (See Rule 291.) Thus: "Mind your *p's* and *q's*," "His *well's* and his *and's* made up half his story."

(*e*) **Observe that certain words of foreign origin retain their foreign plurals.** Note especially *datum, data; phenomenon, phenomena; analysis, analyses; parenthesis, parentheses; thesis, theses.* Foreign nouns

NOTE. — The plural of some words may have either the foreign or the anglicized form. Thus, *formula, formulae,* or *formulas; syllabus, syllabi,* or *syllabuses.*

314. Verbs ending in a consonant add *es* to make the present third singular form when that form has an extra syllable; when it has no extra syllable, they add only *s*. Thus: *miss, misses; proclaim, proclaims.* Present third singular in *s* and *es*

315. There are three verbs ending in *eed: exceed, succeed,* and *proceed*. Other verbs have *ede*.

316. For the sound *ee*, use *ei* after *c* and *ie* after any other letter. If *c* precedes the digraph, *e* follows *c*, as in *Alice*. If another letter precedes the digraph, *i* follows the letter, as in *Alice*. Exceptions: *weird, seize, neither, leisure, financier, obeisance.* *Receive, believe,* etc.

For any other sound of the digraph use *ei*. Exceptions: *friend, view, sieve, mischief, handkerchief.*

317. In case of doubt whether to use *principal* or *principle,* remember that *principle* is always a noun and that the word which contains *a* (princip*a*l) is the adjective. *Principal* is occasionally a noun: *the principal of the school, both principal and interest.* *Principal* and *principle*

318. The common interjection is spelled *oh*. It is capitalized only at the beginning of a sentence, and is followed by an exclamation point, a comma, or no mark at all. *Oh* and *O*

Examples: "Oh, no, it is no trouble." "Oh! you ought not to do that," "My child! oh, my child!" "I will do it — and oh, by the way, where's the key?"

The sign of direct address (poetic or archaic) is spelled *O*. It is always capitalized, and is not followed by punctuation.

Examples: "I am come, O Caesar," "O ye spirits of our fathers," "O God, we pray thee," "I fear for thee, O my country."

A list of words that are commonly misspelled

319. The following list is composed chiefly of ordinary words which are often misspelled. With many of these are grouped — for the sake of comparison and distinction — related words, words not often misspelled, and words of different derivation commonly confused with them. (Numbers refer to rules.)

absence
absorb
absorption
absurd
accept (*receive*)
  except (*exclude, aside from*)
access (*admittance*)
  excess (*greater amount*)
accessible
accident
accidentally
accommodate
accompanying 309
accumulate
accustom
acquainted
acquitted
across
additionally
address
advice (noun)
advise (verb)
adviser
Æneid
airplane
affect (verb, *to influence*)
  effect (verb, *to produce*)
  effect (noun, *result*)
    (There is no noun *affect*)
aggravate
aghast
aisle (in church)
  isle (*island*)
all right (There is no such word as "alright" or "allright")
alley (*small street*)
alleys 307
allies 307
alliteration
allotted
allusion (*hint*)
  illusion (*false image*)
ally (*confederate*)
already
all ready
altar (*shrine*)
alter (*change*)
altogether
alumna (feminine singular)

alumnæ (feminine plural)
alumnus (masculine singular)
alumni (masculine plural)
always
amateur
among
analysis
analyze
angel (*celestial being*)
angelic
angle (*corner*)
annual
answer
anxiety
apart
apartment
apiece 316
apology
apparatus
apparent
appearance
appreciate
appropriate
arctic
arguing 305
argument
arise
arising 305
arithmetic
around
arouse
arranging 305
arrangement
arriving 305
arrival 305
article
ascend
ascends 314
ascent
  assent (*agreement*)
assassin
assassinate
association
athlete (two syllables)
athletic
athletics
attack (present)
attacked (past)
attendance
audience
auxiliary
awkward
bachelor
balance
banana
Baptist
baptize
barbarous
bare
barely
baring
barring
based
bearing
becoming
before
beggar 302
believe 316
benefit
benefited
berth (*bed*)
  birth (*beginning of life*)
boarder (*one who boards*)
border (*edge*)
born ("I was born in 1890")
borne ("borne by the wind"; "She has borne a son")
boundary
breath (noun)
breathe (verb)
bridal (*nuptial*)

bridle (*for a horse*)
brilliant
Britain (*the country*)
Britannia
Britannica
Briton (*a native*)
buoyant
bureaus
burglar
buries 308
bus (*omnibus*)
Buss means *kiss*
business 309
cafeteria
calendar
candidate
can't
canvas (*cloth*)
canvass (*review*)
capital (*city*)
capitol (*building*)
career
carry
carriage 309
(*Cf. marry, marriage*)
caucus
ceiling
cemetery
certain
change
changeable 306
changing 305
chaperon
characteristic
chauffeur
chautauqua
choose
choosing 305 } (present)
chose
chosen } (past)
chord (*of music*)
cord (*string*)
clothes (*garments*)
cloths (*kinds of cloth*)
coarse (*not fine*)
course (*path, series*)
colonel
column
coming 305
commission
commit
committed 303
committee 302
committing 303
comparative
comparatively
compel
compelled
competent
complement (verb)
complement (*completing part*)
compliment (*pleasing speech*)
complimentary (*gracious*)
comrade
comradeship
concede 315. See *precede*
conceit 316
conceive 316
confidant (noun)
confidence
confident (adjective)
confidently
confidentially (*secretly*)
connoisseur
conquer
conqueror
conscience (*inner guide*)
conscientious
conscientiousness
conscious (*aware*)
consciousness
considered

contemptible (*worthy of scorn*)
contemptuous (*scornful*)
continuous
control
controlled 303
cool
coolly 312
copy
copied 308
copies 304, 308
corps (*squad*)
corpse (*dead body*)
costume (*dress*)
custom (*manner*)
council (noun, *assembly*)
councilor (*member of a council*)
counsel (noun, *legal advice, adviser*)
counsel (verb, *to advise*)
counselor (*adviser*)
country
courteous
courtesy
creep
crept
criticism
criticize
cruelty
cylinder
dealt
debater
deceased (*dead*)
diseased (*ill*)
deceit 316
deceive 316
decide
decision
deep
defendants
definite
dependant (noun)
dependent (adjective)
depth
descend
descends 314
descent (*slope*)
decent (*proper*)
dissent (*disagreement*)
describe
describing 314
description
desert (*waste place*)
dessert (*food*)
despair
desperate
destroys
develop (preferable to *develope*)
device (noun)
devise (verb)
diary (*daily record*)
dairy (*milk room*)
dictionary
die
dying 310
difference
different
digging
dining room 305
dinning
diphtheria
dirigible
disappear (dis+appear)
disappoint (dis+appoint)
disaster
disastrous
discipline
disease
diseased. See *deceased*
dissatisfied
dissipate
distribute

divide
doctor
don't
dormitories 307
dual (*twofold*)
duel (*fight*)
dying
ecstasy
effect. See *affect*
eight
eighth
elicit (*to draw out*)
  illicit (*unlawful*)
eligible
eliminate
embarrass
eminent
emphasize
encouraging
enemy
enemies 307
equipped
ere (*before*)
  e'er (*ever*)
especially
etc. (*et cetera*)
everybody
exaggerate
exceed
excellence
excellent
except
exceptionally
excess. See *access*
exercise
exhaust
exhilarate
existence
expense
experience
explanation
extraordinary
facilities
familiar
fascinate
February
fiery
finally 312
financier
forbode
foreboding 305
forehead
foreign
foremost
forfeit
formally (*ceremoniously*)
formerly (*at a former time*)
forth (*forward*)
  fourth (*4th*)
forty. But —
  four
  fourteen
  fourth
frantically
fraternities 307
freshman (adjective)
freshman (noun, singular)
freshmen (noun, plural)
friend
fulfill *or* fulfil
furniture
gambling (*wagering*)
gamboling (*frisking*)
gauge *or* gage
ghost
government
grabbing 303
grammar
grandeur
grief 316
grievous
guard
guess
guidance

handkerchief
handsome
harass
having 305
hear (verb)
here (adverb)
height
heinous
hinder
hindrance
hop
hopping 303
hope
hoping 305
human (*of mankind*)
humane (*merciful*)
humorous
hurried 308
hypnotize
hypocrisy
illiterate
imaginary
imagining 305
imitation
immediately
impetuosity
impromptu
incident (*occurrence*)
incidence (*way a thing falls or strikes* — scientific term)
incidentally
incredible
incredibly
independence
independent
indictment
indispensable
infinite
ingenious (*clever*)
ingenuous (*frank*)
innocence
instance (*occasion*)
instant (*moment*)
intellectual
intelligence
intentionally
intercede
invitation
irrelevant
irresistible
itself
knowledge
laboratory
laid
later (*subsequent*)
latter ("the former, the latter")
lead (*metal*)
led (past tense of *lead*)
legitimate
lessen (*make less*)
lesson
liable
library
lightening (*making less heavy*)
lightning (noun)
likely
literature
livelihood 309
liveliness 309
loneliness 309
loose (adjective)
lose (verb)
lying
maintain
maintenance
maneuver
mantel (*chimney shelf*)
mantle (*cloak*)
manual
manufacture
manufacturer

marriage 309
marries
mathematics
mattress
meant
metal (*e.g., iron*)
mettle (*spirit*)
millionaire
miniature
minute
mischievous
misspelled
momentous
murmur
muscle
mystery
mysterious
naïve
naphtha
necessary
negroes
neither
nine
nineteen
ninety
ninetieth. But *ninth*
noticeable 306
notoriety
nowadays
nucleus
oblige
obstacle
occasion
occasionally
occur
occurred 303
occurring 303
occurrence 302
officer
omit
omitted
omission
oneself
operate
opportunity
optimism
organization
origin
outrageous
overrun
pageant
paid
pamphlet
parallel
paralysis
parliament
parliamentary
particularly
partner
passed (verb, past tense of *pass*)
past (adjective, adverb, and preposition)
pastime
peace
perceive 316
perform
perhaps
permissible
perseverance
persistent
personal (*private*)
personnel (*persons collectively employed*)
persuade
Philippines. But *Filipino*
physical
physician
plan
planned 303
plain (adjective, *clear, simple*)
plain (noun, *flat region*)
plane (adjective, *flat*)

plane (noun, geometric term; *carpenter's tool*)
pleasant
politics
pore (*read intently*)
pour
possess
possible
practically 312
practice (noun and verb)
prairie
precede 315
prece'dence
pre'cedents
preference 303
prejudice
preparation
presence
presents (*gifts*)
principal 317
principle 317
privilege
probably
proceed. See *precede*
professor (pro+fessor)
promenade
pronunciation
prove
pumpkin
pursue
quiet (*still*)
quite (*entirely*)
quiz
quizzes 302
really 312
recede 315. See *precede*
receipt
receive 316
recognize
recommend
reference 303
referred 303
reign (*rule*)
rein (*of a bridle*)
religion
religious
repetition
replies
representative
reservoir
respectfully (*with respect*)
respectively (*as relating to each*)
restaurant
rhetoric
rheumatism
rhyme
rhythm
ridiculous
right
rite (*ceremony*)
sacrificing 305
sacrilegious
safety
sandwich
scene
schedule
secretary
seize
separate
sergeant
severely
shining 305
shone (past of *shine*)
shown (past participle of *show*)
shriek
siege 316
similar
simultaneous
sincerely
site (*place*)
cite (*refer to*)
sight (*view*)

soliloquy
sophisticated
sophomore (three syllables)
specifically
specimen
speech. But *speak*
statement
stationary (adjective)
stationery (noun)
statue (*monument*)
stature (*height*)
statute (*law*)
stopping
stops
stretch
studying 309
succeed 315. See *precede*
suffrage
suit (*of clothes*)
suite (*of rooms*)
superintendent
supersede 315. See *precede*
suppress
sure
surprise
syllable
symmetry
symmetrical
temperament (four syllables)
temperature (four syllables)
tendency
their (possessive of *they*)
there ("here and there")
there (expletive; *e.g.*, "there is no use")
therefor (Cf. *thereof, thereby, therein*)
therefore (*for that reason*)
thorough
thousandths
threw (past tense of *throw*)
through (preposition and adverb)
to ("Go *to* bed")
too ("*Too* bad!" "Me *too!*")
two (2)
together
track (*mark*)
tract (*area*)
tragedy
tries
truly
Tuesday
typical
tyrannically
undoubtedly
unprecedented
until. But *till*
usage
use
using 305
usually
vengeance
village
villain
weather
whether (*which of two*)
weird 316
who's (*who is*)
whose
woman (singular)
women (plural)
writer
writing 305
written
yacht
you're (*you are*)

Incorrect uniting of separate words

320. The members of each of the following expressions should be written as separate words:

all ready (already *means* previously)
all right
any day
any one
any time
by and by
by the bye
by the way
each other
en route
every day
every one
every time
ex officio
in fact
in order
in spite
near by
no one
(on the) other hand
per cent (*but* percentage)
pro tempore
some day
some one
some way

NOTE. — The members of the expressions *a while, any way,* and *some time* should be written as separate words when *while, way,* and *time* are used as nouns; but each expression should be written as a single undivided word when it is used as an adverb.

321. Each of the following expressions should be written as a single undivided word:

although
altogether
anybody
anything
beforehand
downright
downward
everybody
extraordinary
furthermore
herself
himself
inasmuch
indoors
itself
likewise
overcome
overhead
somebody
somehow
something
sometimes
somewhat
steadfast
themselves
thereupon
throughout
together
twofold
upright
upstairs
upward

moreover	whatever
myself	whenever
nevertheless	whereas
nobody	whichever
nothing	whoever
notwithstanding	without
nowadays	yourself
oneself	yourselves
ourselves	

Exercise 1

Doubling final consonants

Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g., stop, stopping, stopped*): *fib, dub, rub, gad, shred, wed, lag, nag, drag, brag, rebel, excel, dispel, fulfil, distil, instil, dam, slam, stem, gum, span, pen, begin, slap, snap, rap, trap, step, chip, clip, shot, hop, war, jar, transfer, inter, abhor, incur, recur, defer, fit, chap, mat, pat, emit, knit, acquit, outwit.*

Exercise 2

Dropping final *e*

Write the following words together with the adjectives ending in *able* derived from them (*e.g., love, lovable*): *dispose, move, mistake, reconcile, prove, compare, console, blame, imagine, decline, cure, measure.*

Exercise 3

Final *e* retained

Write the following words together with their derivatives ending in *able* (*e.g., notice, noticeable*): *trace, service, marriage, charge, damage.*

Exercise 4

Change of *y* to *i*: nouns

Write the singular and the plural of the following nouns (*e.g., lady, ladies*): *baby, lullaby, hobby, democracy, policy, regency, tragedy, remedy, elegy, theology, academy, enemy, anatomy, destiny, poppy, diary, laundry, treaty, delay, spray, alley, attorney, journey, turkey, decoy, alloy, corduroy, convoy.*

Exercise 5

Change of *y* to *i*: verbs

Write the first and third persons present indicative, and the first person past, of the following verbs (*e.g., I cry, he*

cries, I cried); fancy, pacify, terrify, qualify, accompany, spy, reply, occupy, vary, dry, ferry, worry, pity, envy, levy.

Exercise 6

Change of *ie* to *y*

Write the infinitive and the present participle of the following verbs (*e.g., lie, lying*): *belie, hie, tie, die, vie.*

Exercise 7

Plurals in *s* and *es*

Write the singular and the plural of the following nouns (*e.g., bead, beads*): *limb, seed, sword, church, match, yacht, witch, varnish, bank, cannibal, scream, robin, stump, cedar, savior, bus, compass, class, abbess, princess, convict, socialist, blow, ax, axis, matrix, six, quiz, waltz.*

Exercise 8

Present third singulars in *s* and *es*

Write the indicative present, first and third persons singular, of the following verbs (*e.g., refer, refers*): *stab, need, dig, pinch, stitch, watch, wash, fish, drink, deal, dream, lean, grasp, fear, guess, amass, trust, bow, buzz.*

Exercise 9

Believe, receive, etc.

Study the following groups of words:

achieve	pier	ceiling	either
belief	pierce	conceit	leisure
believe	relief	conceive	neither
brief	relieve	deceit	obeisance
chief	reprieve	deceive	seize
field	shield	perceive	weird
fierce	shriek	receipt	
grief	siege	receive	
grieve	thief		
mischief	wield		
niece	yield		
piece			

Exercise 10

The prefix *dis*

Study the following words, observing that in all the prefix is not *diss*, but *dis*: *dis+able, dis+advantage, dis+agree, dis+approve, dis+engage, dis+interested, dis+obedient, dis+orderly, dis+organize, dis+own.*

Exercise 11

The prefix *un*

Study the following words, observing that in all the prefix is not *u*, but *un:* *un*+*natural*, *un*+*nerve*, *un*+*necessary*, *un*+*noticed*, *un*+*numbered*, *un*+*named*, *un*+*neighborly*, *un*+*navigable*.

Exercise 12

The prefixes *per* and *pre*

Study the following words, distinguishing between the prefixes *per* and *pre*. Keep in mind that *per* means *through*, *throughout*, *by*, *for;* and that *pre* means *before*.

perceptible	precarious
perception	precaution
peremptory	precept
perforce	precipitate
perfunctory	precise
perhaps	precocious
perspective	prerogative
perspiration	prescription

Exercise 13

The adjective suffix *ful*

Study the following adjectives, observing that in all the suffix is not *full*, but *ful:* *peaceful*, *dreadful*, *handful*, *graceful*, *forceful*, *wakeful*, *shameful*, *grateful*, *faithful*, *healthful*, *pitiful*, *dutiful*, *thankful*.

Exercise 14

The adjective suffix *ous*

Study the following words, observing that in all the ending is not *us*, but *ous:* *bulbous*, *viscous*, *advantageous*, *gorgeous*, *membranous*, *extraneous*, *piteous*, *courteous*, *dubious*, *specious*, *precious*, *vicious*, *conscious*, *fastidious*, *odious*, *studious*, *religious*, *perilous*.

Exercise 15

The suffix *ly*

Study the following words, observing that in all the suffix is not *y*, but *ly:* *final*+*ly*, *verbal*+*ly*, *radical*+*ly*, *logical*+*ly*, *ethical*+*ly*, *comical*+*ly*, *ironical*+*ly*, *typical*+*ly*, *physical*+*ly*, *political*+*ly*, *critical*+*ly*, *local*+*ly*, *real*+*ly*, *legal*+*ly*.

Study the following words, observing that in all *al* precedes *ly:* *accidentally*, *apologetically*, *pathetically*, *terrif-*

ically, specifically, emphatically, exceptionally, elementally, professionally.

Exercise 16

The suffix *ness*

Study the following words, observing that the suffix is not *ess*, but *ness: clean+ness, drunken+ness, mean+ness, plain+ness, stubborn+ness, sudden+ness, wanton+ness, stern+ness, forlorn+ness, lean+ness, keen+ness.*

Exercise 17

The suffixes *able* and *ible*

Study the following words, observing which ones have the suffix *able*, and which ones the suffix *ible:*

abominable	desirable	inscrutable	serviceable
admirable	despicable	inseparable	sizable
advisable	detestable	intolerable	sociable
allowable	eatable	irreparable	suitable
applicable	excusable	justifiable	syllable
avoidable	explicable	laughable	teachable
believable	hospitable	movable	tolerable
changeable	imaginable	noticeable	traceable
charitable	improbable	peaceable	treasonable
comfortable	incurable	perishable	unbearable
commendable	indispensable	preferable	unmistakable
comparable	inestimable	presentable	unspeakable
conceivable	inevitable	profitable	unutterable
accessible	divisible	indelible	permissible
admissible	eligible	indestructible	plausible
audible	flexible	inexhaustible	possible
compatible	forcible	inexpressible	reducible
comprehensible	horrible	intelligible	reprehensible
contemptible	imperceptible	invincible	responsible
convertible	impossible	invisible	sensible
destructible	incompatible	irresistible	susceptible
digestible	incredible	legible	tangible
discernible	indefensible	perceptible	terrible

Exercise 18

Affect and *effect*

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *affect* or *effect:* 1. I do not like her ——ed manner. 2. An entrance was ——ed by force. 3. The —— upon

her is noticeable. 4. The law will take —— in July. 5. It was an ——ive remedy. 6. The hot weather will —— the crops. 7. There was no serious after——. 8. She ——ed ignorance of the whole matter.

Exercise 19

Consul, council, and *counsel*

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *consul, council, counsel:* 1. He was —— to Japan. 2. He keeps his own ——. 3. There is a meeting of the city ——. 4. He was —— for the defense. 5. They met in ——. 6. I always go to her for ——. 7. What would you —— me to do?

Exercise 20

Passed and *past*

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *passed* or *past. Passed* is the past participle of the verb *pass; past* can be an adjective, noun, adverb, or preposition. 1. We —— your house. 2. She went —— me. 3. He whistled as he —— by. 4. He is a man with a ——. 5. He is —— master at the art of lying. 6. He is —— his prime. 7. Many years —— before he returned. 8. It is long —— bedtime.

Exercise 21

Speak and *speech*

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *speak* or *speech. Speak* is a verb; *speech,* a noun. 1. "—— the ——, I pray you, as I pronounced it to you." 2. His —— is halting. 3. He will —— tonight. 4. Did you hear his —— on India?

Breathe and *breath*

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *breathe* or *breath. Breathe* is a verb; *breath,* a noun. 1. —— deeply, and hold your ——. 2. I caught a —— from the sea. 3. Do not —— this to any one. 4. She said it under her ——.

Exercise 22

Its and *it's*

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with: (*a*) *Its* (pronoun in the possessive case) or *it's* (contraction of *it is*). 1. —— raining. 2. The cat has had —— supper.

3. The clock is in —— old place again. 4. —— now six years since the accident. 5. I think that —— too late to go.

(*b*) *Your* (pronoun in the possessive case) or *you're* (contraction of *you are*). 1. —— mistaken; it is —— fault. 2. —— position is *assured*. 3. —— to go tomorrow. 4. I hope that —— taking —— vacation in July. *Your* and *you're*

(*c*) *There* (adverb or interjection), *their* (pronoun in the possessive case), or *they're* (contraction of *they are*). 1. It is —— turn. 2. —— ready to go. 3. ——, that is over with. 4. —— car was stolen. 5. —— back from —— trip. *These, their,* and *they're*

(*d*) *Whose* (pronoun in the possessive case) or *who's* (contraction of *who is*). 1. —— turn is it? 2. There is the man —— running for mayor. 3. —— responsible for this? 4. —— book is this? *Whose* and *who's*

Exercise 23

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *already* or *all ready*. After each sentence state in parentheses the construction of the expression supplied. 1. We were —— there. 2. We were —— to go. 3. How many are —— to give the answer? 4. He had —— answered the question. 5. They have —— gone. 6. He is —— for the examination. 7. He was —— with a retort. *Already* and *all ready*

Exercise 24

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *altogether* or *all together*. After each sentence state in parentheses the construction of the expression supplied. 1. Our family is —— again. 2. I am —— pleased with the results. 3. You are —— too young to go. 4. I have gathered my material ——. 5. Now, —— again, the first verse. *Altogether* and *all together*

MECHANICS

Legibility

Space between lines

322. Leave a liberal space between consecutive lines in a manuscript. Do not let the loops of *f's*, *g's*, *j's*, *q's*, *y's*, and *z's* in any line descend below the general level of the loops of *b's*, *f's*, *h's*, *k's*, and *l's* in the line below. (Compare Plates I and II.)

Space between words

323. Do not crowd consecutive words close together. (Compare Plates I and II.)

Extra space after period, etc.

324. Between a period, a question mark, an exclamation mark, a semicolon, a colon, a word immediately before a direct quotation, the last word of a direct quotation — between any of these and a word following on the same line, leave double the usual space between words. (See Plate II, lines 1, 2, 3, and 9; and compare the corresponding places in Plate I.)

Spaces in typewritten matter

325. In a typewritten manuscript (type-script) leave two (or three) spaces between a period, question mark, or exclamation mark at the end of a sentence and the word following on the same line. After a comma, semicolon, or colon leave one space.

Crowding marks of punctuation

326. Do not crowd marks of punctuation close to one another or to the words next them. (See Plate I, lines 1, 2, and 9, and compare the corresponding places in Plate II, pages 248 and 249.)

Crowding at bottom of page

327. Do not crowd the writing at the bottom of a page; take a new page.

328. Do not leave gaps between consecutive letters in a word. Especially avoid leaving a wide interval between an initial capital and the rest of the word. Gaps between letters

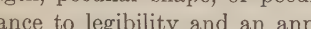
329. Do not write *and* on an oblique line. Oblique *and*

330. Do not neglect dotting *i*'s and *j*'s and crossing *t*'s and *x*'s. Use dots, not circles, over *i*'s and *j*'s. Dots and cross-strokes

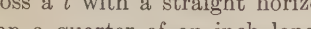
331. Place the cross of a *t* across the stem of the *t*, not elsewhere. Place the dot of an *i* or a *j* immediately above the *i* or the *j*, not elsewhere.

332. Making the crosses of *t*'s conspicuous for their length, peculiar shape, or peculiar direction is a hindrance to legibility and an annoyance to the reader. Cross a *t* with a straight horizontal stroke not more than a quarter of an inch long. Make a *t* a closed stroke, not a loop.

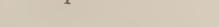
333. Do not form quotation marks and apostrophes as in this illustration: Shape of quotation marks and apostrophes



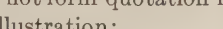
but as in this:



334. Do not write Roman numbers in this manner: Shape of Roman numbers



but in this:



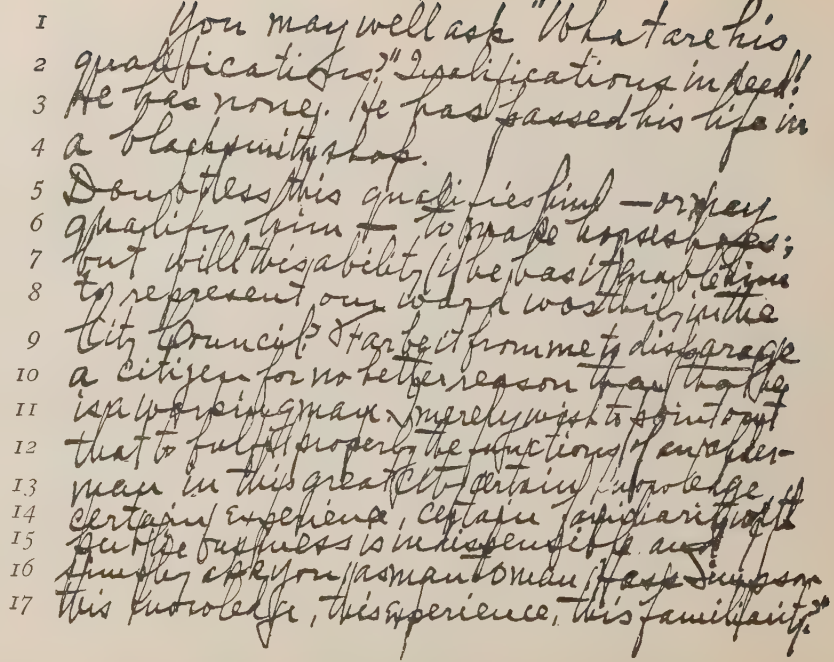

You may well ask "What are his
qualifications?" Qualifications indeed!
He has none. He has passed his life in
a blacksmith shop.
Doubtless this qualifies him — or may
qualify him — to make horseshoes;
but will this ability (if he has it) qualify him
to represent our good worthy citizens in the
City Council? Far be it from me to disparage
a citizen for no better reason than that he
is a workingman. I merely wish to point out
that to fulfill properly the functions of an alder-
man in this great City certain knowledge,
certain experience, certain familiarity with
public business is indispensible. And
I hereby challenge any man to show me
this knowledge, this experience, this familiarity."

PLATE I

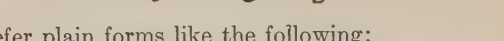
You may well ask, "What are his qualifications?" Qualifications indeed! He has none. He has passed his life in a blacksmith shop. Doubtless this qualifies him — or may qualify him — to make horseshoes; but will this ability (if he has it) enable him to represent our ward worthily in the City Council? For

PLATE II

Conspicuous ornament

335. In forming a letter do not decorate with unnecessary flourishes or with shading. Avoid especially such forms as the following:

Prefer plain forms like the following:



Arrangement of Manuscript

The Manuscript as a Whole

Writing materials

336. The paper for composition should be unruled unless special circumstances, such as the regulations of a class, require the contrary. The writing should be done either with a typewriter or with black, or blue-black, ink. Write on only one side of each sheet of paper. A manuscript should never be rolled; it should go to its destination either flat, or folded as simply as possible.

Only one side of paper to be used

Rolling not permissible

Pages

Page numbers

337. The pages of a manuscript should be numbered at the top in Arabic, not Roman, numbers.

Position of title

338. The title should be written at least two inches from the top of the page. Between the title and the first line of the composition, at least an inch should intervene.

Margin at the top

339. The first line of each page should stand at least an inch from the top of the page.

Margin at the left

340. There should be a blank margin of at least an inch at the left side of each page.

Alterations in Manuscript

Insertion

341. Words to be inserted should be written above the line, and their proper position should be indicated by the sign ∧ (not "v") placed below the line. Words so inserted should not be enclosed in parentheses or brackets unless these marks would be required were the words written on the line.

Note. — Obscurity results from writing an insertion in the manner shown in the *Bad* example below:

Bad:

Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ it as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles, probably will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.

Right:

Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ it as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles, probably will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.

Right:

Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ ~~it~~ as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles, it probably ∧~~probably~~ will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.

Erasure

342. Erasures should be made by drawing a line through the words to be canceled. Parentheses or brackets should not be used for this purpose.

Transposition

343. Words written in one place which are to be transposed to another should be canceled (see Rule 342) and inserted in the proper place by the method shown in Rule 341. No other method of transposition should be used.

Indicating a new paragraph

344. When it is desired that a word standing in the midst of a paragraph should begin a new paragraph, the sign ¶ should be placed immediately before that word. The change should not be indicated otherwise.

Canceling a paragraph division

345. A paragraph division should be canceled by writing "No ¶" in the margin. The change should not be indicated otherwise.

Writing Verse

Run-over lines

346. If an entire line of poetry cannot be written on one line of the page, the part left over should be placed as shown below:

Wrong:

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-laden argosies;
Ministers from twenty nations; more than royal pomp and ease.

Right:

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-laden argosies;
Ministers from twenty nations; more than royal pomp and ease.

Grouping of verse into lines

347. A quotation of poetry should be grouped into lines exactly as the original is grouped.

Bad:

Once to every man and nation
Comes the moment to decide
In the strife of truth with falsehood for the
Good or evil side.

Right:

Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide
In the strife of truth with falsehood for the good or evil side.

Verse set apart on the page

348. A quotation of verse occurring in a prose composition should begin on a new line. The prose following such a quotation should also begin on a new line, indented if it begins a new paragraph, and flush with the left-hand margin if it continues the paragraph containing the quotation. But a single phrase, a part of a line, may be quoted without beginning a new line.

Wrong:

While Tennyson admits that sorrow may be for our ultimate advantage and that, as his great memorial says, "Men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things,"
yet he finds it impossible to get any present consolation from the thought.

Right:

While Tennyson admits that sorrow may be for our ultimate advantage and that, as his great memorial says,

"Men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things,"

yet he finds it impossible to get any present consolation from the thought.

Extended Quotations of Prose

Extended quotations set apart on the page

349. A passage of prose quoted from a written composition or a formal speech, if it is three or four sentences long or longer, should be set apart from the matter preceding and following it, in the same way as a quotation of verse (see Rule 348).

Right:

The part of the letter of instructions providing for an examination of candidates I quote verbatim. This part is as follows:

"and that, furthermore, all candidates be examined as to their knowledge of constitutional law; that this examination be conducted in writing; and that the following questions, among others, be asked:

"1. What power has Congress to punish crimes?

"2. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.

"3. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a state legislature to choose them?"

These instructions, it will be perceived, leave the committee no discretion in regard to waiving the examination.

Tabulated Lists

Indention

350. In a list of items set down in tabular form, the first line of each item should extend farther to the left than the remaining lines of the item. (See Rule 196.)

Wrong:

The principal powers of the President are —

(*a*) The power to conduct foreign affairs.
(*b*) The power to command the army and navy in time of war.
(*c*) The power to veto bills.
(*d*) The power to appoint officers (subject to the approval of the Senate).

Right:

The principal powers of the President are —

(*a*) The power to conduct foreign affairs.
(*b*) The power to command the army and navy in time of war.
(*c*) The power to veto bills.
(*d*) The power to appoint officers (subject to the approval of the Senate).

Tabulated matter set apart on the page

351. A list of items in tabular form should be set apart from the matter preceding and following it, in the same manner as a quotation of verse (see Rule 348).

Bad:

Under this subject there are three important headings:
(*a*) Position of pronouns
(*b*) Use of connectives
(*c*) Position of phrases; all of which are to be carefully studied.

Right:

Under this subject there are three important headings:

(*a*) Position of pronouns
(*b*) Use of connectives
(*c*) Position of phrases

all of which are to be carefully studied.

NOTE. — Another way of correcting the errors above shown is to write the passage without tabulating the items; thus:

Right:

Under this subject there are three important headings· (*a*) Position of pronouns; (*b*) Use of connectives; and (*c*) Position of subordinate expressions — all of which are to be carefully studied.

SYLLABICATION

352. In dividing a word at the end of a line, make the separation between syllables, not elsewhere. (See also Rule 297.)

Rules for syllabication:

There is no uniform principle for determining just what are the several syllables of any given word; one must rely largely on learning, by observation and by reference to dictionaries, what is the correct syllabication in individual cases. Nevertheless, a good many errors may be avoided by observing the following simple rules:

Follow pronunciation

(*a*) Do not set apart from each other combinations of letters the separate pronunciation of which is impossible or unnatural.

A. Wrong: Exc-ursion; go-ndola; illustr-ate; instr-uction; pun-ctuation.
Right: Ex-cursion; gon-dola; illus-trate; in-struction; punc-tuation.

B. Wrong: Prostr-ate; pri-nciple; abs-urd; fini-shing; sugge-stion.
Right: Pros-trate; prin-ciple; ab-surd; finish-ing; sug-ges-tion.

C. Wrong: Nat-ion; conclus-ion; invent-ion; introd-uct-ion; abbr-eviat-ion.
Right: Na-tion; conclu-sion; inven-tion; intro-duction; abbre-via-tion.

D. Wrong: Diffic-ult; tob-acco; exc-ept; univ-ersity; dislo-dgment.
Right: Diffi-cult; to-bacco; ex-cept; uni-versity; dis-lodg-ment.

Prefixes

(*b*) As a rule, divide between a prefix and the letter following it.

Wrong: Bet-ween; pref-ix; antec-edent; conf-ine; del-ight.
Right: Be-tween; pre-fix; ante-cedent; con-fine; de-light.

Suffixes

(*c*) As a rule, divide between a suffix and the letter preceding it. Divide, *e.g.*, before *-ing*, *-ly*, *-ment*, *-ed* (when it is pronounced as a separate syllable, as in *delight-ed*), *-ish*, *-able*, *-er*, *-est*.

Right: Lov-ing; love-ly; judg-ment; invit-ed; Jew-ish; punish-able; strong-er; strong-est.

Doubled consonants

(*d*) As a rule, when a consonant is doubled, divide between the two letters. This rule often takes precedence of Rule *c* above.

Right: Rub-ber; ab-breviation; oc-casion; ad-dition; af-finity; Rus-sian; expres-sion; omis-sion; com-mit-tee; ex-cel-lent; stop-ping; drop-ping; ship-ping; equip-ping.

The digraphs *th*, *ch*, etc., not to be divided

(*e*) Never divide in the midst of *th* pronounced as in *the* or *thin; sh* as in *push; ph* as in *phonograph; ng* as in *sing; gn* as in *sign; tch* as in *fetch;* and *gh* pronounced as in *rough*, or silent. Never divide *ck* except in accordance with Rule *f*, below. Do not divide vowel digraphs.

Wrong: Cat-holic; ras-hness; disc-harge; diap-hragm; gin-gham.
Right: Cath-olic; rash-ness; dis-charge; dia-phragm; ging-ham.

Wrong: Consig-nment; wat-ching; doug-hty.
Right: Consign-ment; watch-ing; dough-ty.

Wrong: Bo-at, sa-il, Spa-in.
Right: Boat, sail, Spain.

The divisions *post-humous* (see page 256), *dis-habille* (see page 256), *Lap-ham*, *nightin-gale*, *distin-guish*, *sïn-gle*, *sig-nature*, and *Leg-horn* form no exceptions to the foregoing rule, for in them *th*, *sh*, etc., are pronounced each as two distinct sounds.

(*f*) In dividing words like *edible*, *possible*, *bridle*, *trifle*, *beagle*, *crackle*, *twinkle*, *staple*, *entitle*, do not set *le* apart by itself; always place with it the preceding consonant. (But see Rule 355.) Final *le* not to be set apart

Right: Edi-ble; possi-ble; bri-dle; tri-fle; bea-gle; crac-kle; etc.

Note. — To Rules *b*, *c*, and *d*, above, there are exceptions. For a statement of these, and for a comprehensive treatment of syllabication, the reader is referred to the Introduction of Webster's New International Dictionary.

353. Never divide a monosyllable. Monosyllables

Wrong: Tho-ugh, stre-ngth.

354. Do not divide a syllable of one letter from the rest of the word. A syllable of one letter

Wrong: Man-y, a-gainst, a-long, ston-y.

355. Dividing words at the end of lines should be avoided as much as possible. And such awkward divisions as the following should never be made: Awkward and too frequent division

Bad: eve-ry, ev-en, on-ly, eight-een.

Abbreviations

356. Abbreviations are in bad taste in literary compositions of any kind, including letters. A few abbreviations — such as *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *q.v.*, *viz.*, *etc.*, *A.D.*, *B.C.*, *a.m.*, *p.m.* — are excepted from the rule, being commonly used in good literature. Use no abbreviations Generally objectionable

except those which you know are employed, not by the newspapers or the writers of commonplace business letters, but by recognized masters of English prose.

Bad: Last summer I worked for the Chandler Mfg. Co. in Casey, Ill. Casey is on the C. and E. I. R.R.

Right: Last summer I worked for the Chandler Manufacturing Company in Casey, Illinois. Casey is on the Chicago and Eastern Illinois Railroad.

NOTE. — Spell in full the names of streets, including those designated by the lower numerals, usually the numerals less than ten (see Rule 401), and the names of months and states. The abbreviations *St.*, *Ave.*, and *Ct.* are sometimes employed in addresses in business correspondence but should not be used in literary discourse or in the addresses of letters of friendship and formal notes.

Abbreviations right in some places; wrong elsewhere

357. Observe that many abbreviations that are proper when combined with other expressions are improper when standing alone. Thus:

Vulgar: I came this p.m.
Right: I came at 10 p.m.

Bad: Let me know the No. of your room.
Right: He lives in room No. 12.

Vulgar: My dear Dr.
Right: My dear Dr. Hart.

Observe also that many abbreviations (such as *vol.*, *ch.*, *p.*, *Co.*, *ed.*) that are permissible in footnotes, parenthetical citations, and similar places are not permissible in formally constructed sentences. In writing the name of a company, use *&* only with the abbreviation *Co.*, unless the company uses the symbol in its letterhead.

Abbreviation of titles

358. Abbreviation of titles is, in general, inelegant and objectionable. Spell out *Professor*, *President*, *Captain*, *General*, *Colonel*, etc. Some abbreviations are, however, always proper; *viz.:* (1) *Mr.*, *Mrs.*,

Messrs., and *Dr.*, when prefixed to names; (2) *Esq.*, and the initial abbreviations *D.D.*, *Ph.D.*, *Jr.*, *Sr.*, etc., when suffixed to names. (See Rule 357.) *Reverend* and *Honorable* are usually abbreviated.

The Representation of Numbers

Dates, folios, etc., and house numbers

359. Do not spell out dates, street numbers, page numbers, or numbers of divisions (parts, chapters, paragraphs, sections, rules, etc.) of a book or a document.

Wrong: On October thirteen, eighteen hundred and eighty-one, I was born at three hundred and sixty-two Adams Street. See page nine hundred and sixteen of our family Bible.

Right: On October 13, 1881, I was born at 362 Adams Street. See page 916 of our family Bible.

Note. — Ordinal numbers designating days of a month may be either spelled out or represented by figures.

Right: The thirteenth of May fell on Friday.

Right: The 13th of May fell on Friday.

Ordinal numbers designating pages or divisions of a book or document are governed by Rule 361.

Sums of money

360. In designating a sum of money in connected discourse, apply the following rules:

The sign $ improper for sums less than a dollar

(*a*) Do not use the sign $ for sums less than one dollar.

Wrong: It costs $0.20.

Right: It costs twenty cents.

The expression .00 never to be used

(*b*) Do not write .00.

Wrong: He subscribed $342.00 to the fund.

Right: He subscribed $342 to the fund.

Fractional sums

(*c*) For a sum amounting to a number of dollars and a number of cents, always use the sign $ and figures.

Right: It costs $3.18.

Even sums: frequent

(*d*) If several sums are mentioned within a short space, use figures for all, putting the sign $ before all numbers representing dollars.

Right: My room costs $5 a week and my board $6.50; my contribution to the church is 30 cents; my incidental expenses range from $9.35 to $22.50 a month.

Isolated: a sum in cents

(*e*) In case of an isolated mention of a sum in cents, spell out the number.

Right: The price is ninety cents.

A sum in dollars

(*f*) In case of an isolated mention of a sum in dollars without a fraction, spell out a number expressed in one or two words, such as *three, sixteen, two hundred, six thousand, one million;* for other numbers, such as 102, 350, 1130, 1,500,000, use the sign $ and figures.

Right: He contributed twenty thousand dollars.
Right: It sold for eighteen hundred dollars.
Right: His fortune amounts to $72,500.

A sum used as an adjective

(*g*) It is preferable to spell out a sum used as an adjective.

Right: I sent her a ten-dollar bill.

Numbers not treated in Rules 270, 271

361. In representing, in connected discourse, numbers other than those treated in Rules 359 and 360, apply the following rules:

Frequent numbers — figures

(*a*) In case several numbers are mentioned in a short space, use figures for all. See for example the text of Rules 161 and 162, where numbers occur frequently and representation of them by words would inconvenience the reader.

Numbers not frequent

(*b*) If the numbers to be represented are not frequent, spell out numbers that may be expressed in one or two words, such as *eighteen, ninety-seven, two*

hundred, eighteen hundred, twenty thousand, one million, fifty million; use figures for those that require three or more words, such as 108, 233, 1,250, 18,231, 1,500,230.

Wrong: The college is 25 miles from Columbus and has 900 students.

Right: The college is twenty-five miles from Columbus and has nine hundred students.

Wrong: In this city there were four hundred and thirty-four saloons to three hundred and eighty-five thousand, one hundred and ninety-two people.

Right: In this city there were 434 saloons to 385,192 people.

Bad: He lives on 2nd street.

Right: He lives on Second Street. (See Rules 356 and 401.)

NOTE. — In informal and business correspondence, numbers used as the names of streets (usually numbers above ten) may be expressed in figures followed by *st, nd, rd, d,* or *th.*

Right: 618 98th Street.

(*c*) Do not use numerals at the beginning of a sentence. Spell the numbers out or recast the sentence so as to begin it with another word.

Wrong: 1914 was a momentous year.

Right: The year 1914 was momentous.

Right: Nineteen hundred fourteen was a momentous year.

Ages, and hours of the day

362. From Rule 361 *b* it follows that a number representing a person's age or one designating an hour of the day should nearly always be spelled out. (See Rule 361 *a.*)

Right: At twelve o'clock all the children below eight years of age are sent home.

NOTE. — The abbreviations A.M. and P.M. are usually used with figures.

Right: The train arrives at 3:42 P.M.

Use of *st*, *nd*, etc., with day of the month

363. It is better not to use *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *d*, or *th* after a figure designating the day of the month if the year is also designated.

Bad: January 8th, 1927.
Right: January 8, 1927.

Parenthetic repetition of numbers

364. A sum of money or a number that is spelled out should not be repeated in parenthesized figures, except in legal or commercial letters and instruments. When such repetition is made, (*a*) a parenthesized sum should stand at the end of the expression that it repeats, not elsewhere; and (*b*) a parenthesized number should stand immediately after the number that it repeats, not elsewhere.

Wrong: I enclose ($10) ten dollars. [*a*]
Wrong: I enclose ten ($10) dollars. [*b*]
Right: I enclose ten dollars ($10). [*a*]
Right: I enclose ten (10) dollars. [*b*]

NOTE. — The figures should be put within the parenthesis; the words should not be spelled out.

Wrong: I enclose $10 (ten dollars).
Right: I enclose ten dollars ($10).

CAPITALS

Proper names

Days and months

365. Capitalize proper nouns in general, including the names of the days of the week, the names of the months, the names of political parties, historical events, periods, documents, geographical names, names of buildings, titles, organizations and institutions, names of governmental bodies and departments, names of the Deity and pronouns used instead of those names, names for the Bible, and divisions of a book. Thus: The Socialist Party, the Fall of Rome, the Middle Ages, the Declaration of Independence, the Azores, the Woolworth Building, the Red Cross Society, the Home for the Friendless, the

Senate, the Department of Labor, God the Father, Jehovah, Chapter III. But note:

(*a*) The words *spring, summer, midsummer, autumn, fall, winter,* and *midwinter* should not be capitalized. Not seasons

(*b*) *North, south, east, west,* and their various forms (*northwest,* etc.) and derivatives (*northern,* etc.) should not be capitalized except when they designate divisions of the country. *North, south,* etc.

Right: As we sailed north we saw a ship going west.
Right: The West is prosperous. — The people of the South are migrating westward. — The Northern delegates clashed with the Southern.

366. Capitalize words denoting family relationship, such as *father, mother, sister,* only when they are used with the name of a person or as a substitute for it. Words denoting family relationship

Right: I heard that Uncle John had written to Mother.
Right: She accompanied her brother.

367. Titles of persons should be capitalized when they precede proper names. When used without proper names, titles of governmental officers of high rank should be capitalized; other titles should not. Titles of persons

Right: There go Professor Cox and Colonel Henry. — A certain professor became a colonel in the volunteer army. — The President and the Postmaster-General sent for the postmaster of our town and the secretary of our society. — There goes A. H. Cox, Professor of Latin.

Note. — Academic degrees, when abbreviated, are written with capital letters; when not abbreviated, they are written with either capital letters or small letters.

Right: LL.D., Ph.D., Master of Arts, master of arts.

Common-noun elements of proper names

368. Capitalize *club, company, society, college, high school, railroad, county, river, lake, park, street* or any other common noun, when it is made a component part of a proper name; not otherwise.

Wrong: I went to that College one year.
Right: I went to that college one year.

Wrong: Do you mean Hamilton college?
Right: Do you mean Hamilton College?

NOTE. — Many writers consistently go contrary to this rule. Thus: Bleeker street, Portland county, Pennsylvania railroad, the Saturday club, Wilson school.

Words of race and language

369. Capitalize nouns and adjectives of language or race, such as *German, Latin, Indian, Negro,* etc. *Negro* and *gypsy* are often written with small letters, especially when used to designate an individual.

Words in literary titles

370. Capitalize only the important words of literary titles.

Right: I read *The Light that Failed* and *A Tale of Two Cities.*

NOTE. — Capitalize both words of a compound noun in a title, but only the first word in compound adjectives, adverbs, etc.

Right: *Walking-Stick Papers.*
Right: *The House on Forty-ninth Street.*

At the beginning of a sentence or quotation

371. Capitalize the first word of a sentence. This rule applies in general to quoted sentences.

Wrong: The conductor cried, "hands off!"
Right: The conductor cried, "Hands off!"

Note, however, that capitals are not used in the following instances:

The part of a sentence following *he said*

(*a*) The part of the quotation following the expression, *he said,* or its equivalent, unless that part is a new sentence.

Wrong: "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman, "Until he gets up."
Right: "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman, "until he gets up." [or] "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman. "He's probably asleep."

(*b*) The expression, *he said*, or its equivalent. *He said*

Wrong: "Hammer on the window," Advised the policeman. "He's probably asleep."
Right: "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman. "He's probably asleep."

(*c*) A quoted sentence from which words are omitted at the beginning. Quoted sentence with words omitted

Right: ". . . . . the outer passes away, in swift endless changes; the inmost is the same yesterday, today and forever." — CARLYLE.

(*d*) A quoted sentence-element incorporated in a sentence. Quoted sentence-element

Wrong: It seemed to be "Without form and void."
Right: It seemed to be "without form and void."

(*e*) An indirect quotation. Indirect quotation

Wrong: He said, "He could not come."
Right: He said he could not come.
Right: He said, "I cannot come."

372. Capitalize the first word of every line of poetry. At the beginning of lines of poetry

See the *Right* examples under Rules 346–348. Do not capitalize, however, when part of a line is omitted.

Right:

". . . . . he went, unterrified,
Into the gulf of death; but his clear Sprite
Yet reigns o'er earth; the third among the sons of light." — SHELLEY.

373. Capitalize the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*, but not the interjection *oh* except at the beginning of a sentence. *I*, *O*, and *oh*

Salutation and complimentary close of letters

374. Capitalize the first and last words in the salutation of a letter and only the first word in the complimentary close.

Wrong: Dear sir:
Right: Dear Sir:

Wrong: Yours Sincerely,
Right: Yours sincerely,

Misuse after a semicolon

375. Do not capitalize the part of a sentence following a semicolon.

Wrong: Send him to the library; His father wants to speak to him.

Right: Send him to the library; his father wants to speak to him.

Misuse after a colon

376. Do not capitalize, as a rule, the part of a sentence following a colon, unless that part is a formal, complete statement.

Wrong: Bring the following articles with you: One pair of heavy shoes, one pair of light shoes, overshoes, a heavy coat, a rain coat, and a pair of woolen blankets.

Right: Bring the following articles with you: one pair of heavy shoes, etc.

Right: Here is the old question of campaign funds: If I take a hundred thousand dollars from a group of men representing a particular interest that has a big stake in a certain schedule of the tariff, I take it with the knowledge that those gentlemen will expect me not to forget their interest in that schedule, and that they will take it as an implicit honor that I should see to it that they are not damaged by too great a change in that schedule. — Woodrow Wilson.

Series of short questions in one sentence

377. In a sentence composed of a series of short questions, only the first question need begin with a capital.

Right: What is freedom but machinery? what is population but machinery? what is coal but machinery? what are railroads but machinery? what is wealth but machinery? what are, even, religious organizations but machinery? — ARNOLD.

Use without reason

378. Do not capitalize words which there is no reason for capitalizing, such as *locomotive, forest, organ, rhetoric, mathematics, history, whooping cough, landlady, bulldog, electricity, citizen, flour mill, profession, gold mine, teachers' convention, high school.*

ITALICS

Representation in MS.

379. To italicize a word in a manuscript, draw one straight line below it.

Italics with titles of books, etc.

380. Italicize titles of literary, musical, and artistic works, and of periodicals. Do not italicize the author's name.

Right: Walter Scott's *The Talisman,* Rider Haggard's *King Solomon's Mines,* Talfourd's *Ion,* and the *Atlantic Monthly* furnished his principal amusement.

NOTE. — It is permissible to enclose titles in quotation marks instead of italicizing them; but the simpler and better approved practice is to italicize. (See Rule 277.)

Titles beginning with *the:* Single works

381. If the title of a single literary, musical, or artistic work begins with *the*, this word should not be omitted in writing the title, and it should be capitalized and italicized.

Wrong: Do you like Kipling's *Man Who Was* and Chaminade's *Silver Ring?*

Right: Do you like Kipling's *The Man Who Was* and Chaminade's *The Silver Ring?*

Wrong: I felt depressed after reading the *House of Mirth.*

Right: I felt depressed after reading *The House of Mirth.*

Periodicals

382. In writing the name of a newspaper or other periodical, however, a *the* limiting the noun of the title should not be capitalized or italicized even if it is part of the title; and the name of a city modifying adjectively the noun of the title should not be italicized.

Right: She found there some copies of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, the *Evening Telegraph*, the *Century Magazine*, the New York *Evening Post*, and the Madison (Wisconsin) *Democrat*.

Names of ships

383. Italicize names of ships.

Right: I cut the *Hispaniola* from her anchor.

Italics with words discussed

384. When a word is spoken of *as a word* — not used to represent the thing or idea that it ordinarily represents, and not quoted — it should be italicized. When a word is spoken of as a quoted word, it should usually be enclosed in quotation marks and not italicized.

Right: The misuse of *grand*, *awful*, and *nice* is a common fault.

Right: In the expression "we, the people," "people" is in apposition with "we."

Note. — With words discussed, it is permissible to use quotation marks instead of italics, even when the words are not quoted; and it is sometimes necessary and advisable to do so. In this book, for example, quotation marks are used with incorrect expressions discussed, because this practice helps, in some cases, to distinguish the wrong phraseology from the right. But the better practice in general is to italicize.

With foreign words

385. Italicize unnaturalized foreign words introduced into an English context.

Right: He is a *bona fide* purchaser.

Latin words in footnotes

386. Italicize the following Latin words or abbreviations used in reference and in footnotes: *circa*, *c.*,

et al., ibid., idem., infra, loc. cit., op. cit., passim, sic, supra, vide. (See Rule 18.)

387. Avoid the habit of frequently italicizing words for emphasis; do not emphasize a word in this way unless there is some especially good reason — as, for instance, the fact that obscurity would result from lack of emphasis. For emphasis

Bad: The curse of this age is *commercialism* coupled with *hypocrisy.*
Right: The curse of this age is commercialism coupled with hypocrisy.

Note. — For examples of necessary emphasis by italics, see Rule 384.

388. Do not italicize for the purpose of calling attention to your humor or irony; this practice is undignified and inartistic. (Cf. Rules 262 and 284 *e.*) Improper use for marking humor

Bad: The villain in the play was *charming.*
Right: The villain in the play was charming.

Exercise 1

Show how each of the following words may be correctly divided at the end of a line. For example: Syllabication

re-mem-ber
in-com-plete

A. *instrumental, distributive, gratification, dissatisfaction, lexicographer, isosceles, retinue, perspicacious, disinterestedness, philologist, maiden, husband, eightieth, despondency, incontrovertibly, amphitheater, rheumatism, changeable.* Miscellaneous

B. *abject, acquit, adhere, belie, concur, defer, disagree, educate, excuse, forget, unreal, invite, mistrust, interest, obtain, suburb, supervise, repeat, postmark, provide, embed, unified.* Prefixes

C. *driven, loaded, inspector, laughable, payment, hurrying, quickly, selfish, stronger, strongest, clearness, memorize, helpful, listless, chemist.* Suffixes

Doubled consonants

D. *possess, cottage, message, cobbler, lesson, mutton, garrison, parallel, prattle, slipping.*

Digraphs

E. *mother, witchcraft, attachment, clanging, thoroughness, seraphim, checkmate, resignment, triumphant, fleshiness, autochthonous.*

Exercise 2

Abbreviations, numbers, capitals, italics

Correct in the following sentences any errors in abbreviations, numbers, capitals, and italics. State the reasons for the changes made.

1. He made a survey of Athletics in the Universities and Colleges in the U.S. 2. When grandmother was a girl, things were different. 3. She always adds a P.S. to her letters. 4. Did you consult Edwardes' dictionary of non-classical mythology? 5. Something injured his amour propre when he was traveling in the East last Winter. 6. I spent fifty cents for a pattern, $6.80 for my material, and a dollar and ten cents for trimming; so you see that my dress will cost only $8.40. 7. It is a 10-ton load. 8. 1929 brought us good fortune. 9. "You will surely decide to go," he said, "For you will never have such a chance as this again." 10. After each war we resolve "That these dead shall not have died in vain."

11. Our country entered the war in nineteen hundred and seventeen. 12. You have a hard road ahead: There will be tedious hours of work under an exacting master, perhaps in unpleasant surroundings, and there will be little pay and less honor. 13. The use of the word like as a conjunction is a very common error. 14. My Chemistry and Math. grades were high. 15. The Harvard and Yale are good passenger boats going up and down the Pacific coast. 16. To some southern democrats, all northerners are still black republicans. 17. There was much discussion about the eighteenth amendment. 18. The president of the United States rose to greet the president of our university. 19. The catholic church was very powerful in the middle ages. 20. Political Science, history, economics, and spanish have been my favorite subjects.

21. He made his money in the Real Estate business. 22. He caught a large Muskellunge.

PREPARATION OF COPY FOR THE PRINTER AND CORRECTION OF PROOF

Copy

389. Manuscript prepared for a publisher or a printer is called "copy." The general directions for the preparation of manuscript given in the chapter on Mechanics (pages 246–270) should be carefully observed.[1]

Copy should be typewritten on one side only of paper about $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inches in size, in double or triple space, with ample margins on all edges. Sheets should be arranged in their proper order and numbered. The name and address of the writer should be written in an upper corner of the first page.

Complete, consistent, and accurate copy

390. Copy should be prepared exactly as the writer wishes it to appear in print. After it is completed it should be gone over with care to make sure that every detail of arrangement, of spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, capitalizing, etc., is unmistakably clear and consistent throughout. Copy that is not uniform has to be edited, often at the expense of the author, and causes unnecessary delay. Alterations made after copy is in type are usually charged to the author.

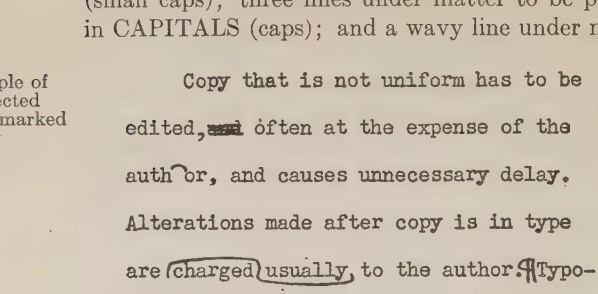
Technical practices

391. Typographical details are usually left to the editor or publisher, but the author must indicate some

[1] For more detailed information on the preparation of manuscript and the correction of proof than is given in this book, see the *Manual of Style*, University of Chicago Press, 1925; *Notes for the Guidance of Authors*, Macmillan, 1918; *Style Manual*, Government Printing Office, 1923.

of them. Draw one line under matter to be *italicized;* two lines under matter to be printed in SMALL CAPITALS (small caps); three lines under matter to be printed in CAPITALS (caps); and a wavy line under matter

Sample of corrected and marked copy


Copy that is not uniform has to be
edited, often at the expense of the
author, and causes unnecessary delay.
Alterations made after copy is in type
are charged usually to the author. ¶ Typo-
graphical details are usually left to the
editor or publisher, but the must
indicate some of them. draw one line
under matter to be italicized; two lines
under matter to be printed in small capi-
tals (small caps); three lines under mat-
ter to be printed in capitals (caps); and
a wavy line under matter to be printed in
boldface.

to be printed in **bold-face.** For italic capitals, draw three lines under the matter and write " italic caps " opposite it in the margin. Quoted matter not embodied in a paragraph with other matter is often printed in smaller type or with a wider margin than that of the body of the text. The publisher will

usually follow his office practice in this regard, but the author may properly indicate his own preference by extra indention or by using single-space typing, or both, with such quoted matter.

Insertions in the copy

392. If it is necessary to insert new material after the copy is written, this new material should be written on a separate sheet marked " Insert A " and attached to the sheet to which the new material is to be added. On the former, the same words " Insert A " should be written at the point where the insertion is to be made. If several pages of new material are to be inserted at the same point, they should be marked with the number of the page on which the insertion comes and should be marked A, B, C, etc. Thus inserts for page 18 should be marked 18A, 18B, 18C, etc. If pages are to be omitted after the copy has been numbered, the omission may be made clear in this manner: If pages 6–10 are to be omitted, there should be a note at the bottom of page 5 stating " page 11 follows." (For the correct placing of footnotes in copy, see Rules 14–17.)

Sending manuscript

393. Manuscript should be sent flat, not folded, and never rolled, in a strong covering, either heavy envelope or substantial wrapping paper, securely tied and sealed. If sent by mail, it requires letter postage. Manuscript weighing more than a few ounces can usually be sent at less expense by express than by mail. It should always be insured.

Galley proof

394. After the copy is set in type, a proof is taken and corrected by the proofreader of the printer or the publisher. This " galley " proof, with the original copy, is then sent to the author, who makes his cor-

rections in ink in the margin of the proof. The corrections and changes should be indicated by the standard proofreader's marks. (See Rule 396.) If new material is added, it should, if possible, fill one or more complete lines, in order that alteration may be easier; if a substitution is made, it should be of the same length as the original matter. The printer's errors are corrected without charge to the author, who should make such corrections and put a circle around them.

Changes from the copy must be paid for by the author. Any necessary alterations must be made in the galley proof; changes in the page proof are very difficult and expensive to make. In no case should alterations in page proof require changes beyond the page on which they occur. The galley proof and copy should be returned to the publisher.

Page proof

395. After the corrections are made, the type is arranged in pages,[1] and page proof is sent to the author with the marked galley proof. In the page proof, the author must be certain (1) that the corrections in the galley proof have been made; (2) that the titles or "folio heads" at the top of the pages are correctly worded and placed; (3) that the pages are correctly numbered; (4) that no lines have been omitted or transposed at the bottom or top of the pages; (5) that footnotes are correctly placed; (6) that no letters or marks of punctuation have been dropped from the end of the lines; and (7) that no words are divided at ends of lines except between syllables. The page proof should be marked "O.K.," if there are no correc-

[1] The handling of proof here described represents the practice in publishing books, rather than magazine articles.

tions; or "O.K. with corrections," if there are corrections to be made. The page proof with the galley proof should then be returned to the publisher.

396. Proofreader's Marks.

Proofreader's marks

Dele, or delete: take it out.
Letter reversed—turn.
Put in space.
Close up—no space.
Bad spacing; space more evenly.
Wrong font: character of wrong size or style.
Transpose.
¶ Make a new paragraph.
Indent; or, put in an em-quad space.
Carry to the left.
Carry to the right.
Elevate.
Depress.
Imperfect type—correct.
Space shows between words—push down.
Straighten crooked line.
Straighten alignment.
stet Restore or retain words ~~crossed out~~.
Print (æ, fi, etc.) as a ligature.
out-see copy Words are omitted from, or in, copy.
(84) or (?) Query to author: Is this correct?
caps Put in capitals.
sc. Put in SMALL CAPITALS.
lc Put in ~~LOWER CASE~~.
rom Put in ~~roman~~ type.
ital Put in italic type.
bf Put in bold face type.

LETTER WRITING

Letters in the First Person

The Heading

Address before date

397. The first member of a correct letter written in the first person is the heading — *i.e.*, a statement of the address of the writer and the date of writing. The address should precede the date.

Right: Groveport, Ohio, June 4, 1928

Right: Groveport, Ohio,
June 4, 1928.

Right: Groveport, Ohio
June 4, 1928

The address: Sufficient address

398. The address in the heading should be such as would be sufficient for a postal direction.

Right: 212 State Street,
Chicago, Illinois.

Right: Route 3, La Salle, Illinois.

Right: Route 3, La Salle, Illinois

Street direction before city

399. If the address contains a street direction, this should precede the name of the city.

Right: 28 High Street,
Columbus, Ohio.

Right: 28 High Street
Columbus, Ohio

House numbers

400. A house number should be written in Arabic figures and should be preceded by no word or sign.

Right: 15 H Street; not #15 H Street, or Fifteen H Street.

401. Street numbers less than ten are usually spelled out. (See Rule 356.) Numbers of streets

Right: 285 Second Street.
Right: 285 42nd Street.

402. In writing a street direction do not omit *Street*. Do not omit *Street*

Wrong: 17 Main.
Right: 17 Main Street.

403. The date should consist of the name (not the number) of the month, the number of the day of the month, and the complete number of the year. The date: Completeness

Inelegant: 3/21/'28.
Right: March 21, 1928.
Right: 21 March, 1928.

404. All the numbers in the date should be written in Arabic figures, not represented by words. (See Rule 359. But cf. Rule 439.) Figures, not words

Wrong: March the twenty-first, nineteen hundred and twenty-eight.
Right: March 21, 1928.

405. The number of the day should not be followed by *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *d*, or *th*. *St*, *nd*, etc., not to be used

Undesirable: March 21st, 1928.
Right: March 21, 1928.

406. Do not use any abbreviations in the heading. It is permissible to waive this rule in business letters, but it is more dignified to observe it invariably. The name of the month should not be abbreviated. Abbreviations not to be used

Undesirable:	Norton, Mass., Jan. 3, 1928.
Right:	Norton, Massachusetts, January 3, 1928.

407. The entire heading, if short, may be written on one line. If two lines are necessary, the date should Grouping of the heading into lines

be written alone on a separate line. If three are necessary, the street direction should stand on the first line, the name of the city and state on the second, and the date on the third.

Right: Fayette, Ohio, May 21, 1928.

Wrong: 21 North Street,
Lima, Ohio, June 1, 1928.

Right: 21 North Street, Lima, Ohio,
June 1, 1928.

Right: 5051 Madison Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois,
August 27, 1928.

Position of the heading

408. The lines of the heading may have the same indention, or each line may be indented about one-fourth of an inch more than the preceding line.

Right: 5743 Dorchester Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.
June 18, 1928.

Right: 5743 Dorchester Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.
June 18, 1928.

Right: Alfred A. Black
730 Fifth Avenue, New York
June 18, 1928

409. The heading should be written at the beginning of the letter at the right side of the page. (See the letters on page 289.)

410. In printed, lithographed, or engraved letterheads, the name of the writer or of the firm, and the address are usually placed in the middle of the page; the date may be written at the right of the page or in the center under the address.

Separation or repetition of members

411. Do not write a part of the heading at the beginning of the letter and a part at the close (see Rule

397); and do not repeat the heading or a part of it at the close when it has been written at the beginning.

Bad:

York, Ia., May 1, 1928.

Dear John,

* * *

Yours sincerely,
Robert Graves,
20 Charlotte St.

Bad:

York, Ia., May 1, 1928.

Dear John,

* * *

Yours sincerely,
Robert Graves.

20 Charlotte St.,
York, Ia.

Right:

20 Charlotte Street,
York, Iowa,
May 1, 1928.

Dear John,

* * *

Yours sincerely,
Robert Graves.

NOTE. — In informal social letters the address of the writer and the date of the writing may be placed on the last page of the letter on a space lower than the signature and at the left-hand margin.

Punctuation of the heading

412. Punctuation may be used or may be omitted at the end of the lines of the heading, but care should be taken to follow a consistent practice. (See also Rule 420.) If end-punctuation is used, there should be a comma after *Street*, *Avenue*, etc.; a comma or a period after the state; and a period after the year. There should be punctuation within the lines. A comma should be used after the city and after the

day of the month, but not between the month and the day. All abbreviations should be followed by periods. (See the letters on page 289.)

The Inside Address

Essential to a complete letter

413. The inside address — a statement of the name and address of the person written to — is an essential part of a complete business letter.

Position in commercial letters

414. The inside address, which may be written in two or three lines, in commercial letters should be placed at the left-hand side of the page two or more spaces below the last line of the heading. The first line should be flush with the left-hand margin; the rest of the address may also be placed at the margin-line or indented, each line about one-fourth of an inch more than the preceding.

Right: Henry White and Company,
19 West Forty-fourth Street,
New York City.

Right: Henry White and Company,
19 West Forty-fourth Street,
New York City.

415. In letters of friendship, in business letters not dealing with mercantile transactions, and in professional letters, the inside address may stand either above the salutation or at the bottom of the letter at the left-hand side of the page. Placing the inside address at the end is a little more elegant than placing it at the beginning. In letters of friendship the inside address may be omitted unless the one written to is almost a stranger or occupies a position of honor.

Letter to an individual in a firm

416. If, in the case of a letter to a firm, the particular attention of a member of the firm is desired, the following forms may be used:

Right: Messrs. Meade, Brown, and Harrison,
19 Wabash Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.

Attention of Mr. M. L. Brown.
Gentlemen:

Right: Messrs. Meade, Brown, and Harrison
19 Wabash Avenue
Chicago, Illinois

Attention: Mr. M. L. Brown
Gentlemen:

Or: Gentlemen: Attention of Mr. M. L. Brown

Omission of street direction permissible

417. The street direction may be omitted from the inside address. In a letter of which a copy is kept the street direction in the copy is often found convenient.

Right:

The Tiffany Company,
New York City.
Gentlemen:

Name without address

418. Do not write a name alone above the salutation.

Wrong:

Mr. Harvey Myers.
My dear Sir:

Right:

Mr. Harvey Myers,
Seattle, Washington.
My dear Sir:

Abbreviations not to be used

419. In the inside address do not omit *Mr.* or whatever other title is proper, before the name of an individual. Before a firm name composed of individual names, it is correct to write *Messrs.* or to omit the title. *Messrs.* is improper before a name not composed of individual names. Use no abbreviations of titles except *Mr.*, *Esq.*, *Messrs.*, *Mrs.*, *Dr.*, *Rev.*, and

Hon., and suffixed initial titles, like *Ph.D.* (See Rule 358.)

Right: Messrs. Hoyt and Marsh,
Chicago, Illinois.
Hoyt and Marsh,
Chicago, Illinois.

Lacking in courtesy and propriety:
J. H. Woolson,
Morristown.
Heath Pub. Co.,
N. Y. City.

Right:
Mr. J. H. Woolson,
Morristown, New Jersey.
D. C. Heath and Company,
New York City.

Permissible exceptions

NOTE 1. — By way of exception, the long names *United States of America* and *District of Columbia* may be abbreviated respectively to *U. S. A.* and *D. C.* It is permissible in business letters to abbreviate the names of States also; but the better practice is to spell out those names. Abbreviation of the short names *Maine*, *Ohio*, and *Iowa* is objectionable in any letter.

Use of the title *Esq.*

NOTE 2. — The title *Esq.* is a proper substitute for *Mr.* When *Esq.* follows a name, no title should precede the name.

Wrong: Mr. Ralph Williams Esq.
Right: Ralph Williams, Esq.

Punctuation of the address

420. Punctuation marks may be used or may be omitted at the end of the lines of the inside address; but care should be taken to follow a consistent practice. If marks are used at the end of the lines, a period should be placed after the last line and commas after the others. Punctuation marks may be necessary within the line; for example, a comma should be placed between the city and the state. Periods should be used after all abbreviations.

Open Punctuation

Right: Marshall Field and Company
State and Madison Streets
Chicago, Illinois

Close Punctuation

Right: Marshall Field and Company,
State and Madison Streets,
Chicago, Illinois.

The Salutation

Business letters

421. The following are proper salutations for business letters:

Dear Sir:	Dear Madam:
Gentlemen:	Ladies:
My dear Sir:	My dear Madam:
My dear Mr. Park:	

NOTE 1. — The first word of the salutation and all nouns are capitalized.

NOTE 2. — There is no hard and fast line drawn between business letters and letters of friendship, and the usages of the latter may be employed in the former when the degree of acquaintance allows. *Dear Mr. Park* is more intimate than *My dear Mr. Park*. *Dear Sir* is more common than *My dear Sir* in business letters, the omission of the *my* in this case not implying any greater degree of intimacy.

Letters of friendship

422. The following are proper salutations for letters of friendship:

Dear Susan,	Dear old Dad,
My dear Mr. Smith,	My dear Miss Jones,
Dear John,	Dearest Mother,
Dear Mrs. Jackson,	Dear Aunt Edith,

NOTE — Salutations without *My* are more intimate than those with *My*.

Improper salutations

423. The salutations "Dear Friend," "My dear Friend," and "Friend John" are not in reputable use; avoid them.

A name for a salutation

424. Never use a name alone as a salutation.

Bad:

Melmore, O., Sept. 3, '28

Mr. Percy Clapp: —
Please inform me . . .

Right:

Melmore, Ohio, September 3, 1928.

My dear Mr. Clapp,
Will you please inform me . . .

Abbreviations not to be used

425. In the salutation never use any abbreviation, except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Dr.* (See Rule 358.)

Bad: My dear Prof. Walker,
Right: My dear Professor Walker,

Bad: Dear Capt. Ayer,
Right: Dear Captain Ayer,

Punctuation

426. The salutation of a business letter should be followed by a colon. The comma is customarily used after the salutation of an informal letter of friendship, but a colon is allowed. See the two letters on page 289.

Position of the salutation

427. The salutation should be written flush with the left-hand margin. The body of a pen-written letter should begin on the line below; of a typewritten letter, two spaces below. All paragraphs should receive the same indention, one inch; the first should not be indented farther than the others.

If a single-spaced typewritten letter has double spacing between the paragraphs and if the block style is used in the heading and the address, it is allowable to write all paragraphs flush with the left margin, without indention.

The Complimentary Close

Business letters

428. The following are proper complimentary closes for business letters:

Yours truly,
Yours very truly,
Very truly yours,

Respectfully yours and *Yours respectfully* are used in writing to school, college, and government officials.

Letters of friendship

429. The following are proper complimentary closes for letters of friendship, or for business letters in which there is an intimate relation between the writer and the person addressed:

Yours very truly,	Cordially yours,
Yours sincerely,	Faithfully yours,

Vulgar closes

430. Do not use any abbreviation, such as " yrs " or " resp'y " in the complimentary close; nor write " respectively " for *respectfully;* nor write " and oblige " in the place of the complimentary close. Do not omit the word *yours.*

Position and punctuation

431. The complimentary close should be written on a separate line, about two spaces below the last line of the body of the letter (in typewritten letters), should stand near the middle of the line, should have only the first word capitalized, and should be followed by a comma.

Position of preceding words

432. Expressions introducing the complimentary close, such as " I am," " believe me," " good-bye," now rarely used, should occupy their regular positions in the body of the letter.

Right:

Accept my congratulations upon your new appointment; and believe me

Yours sincerely,
Henry Cobb.

The Signature

Position of the signature

433. The signature should be placed about two

spaces below the complimentary close, and near the right-hand margin of the letter.

Signatures in business letters

434. The signature should always be written by hand. In a typewritten letter in which the name of the writer does not appear on the letterhead, the name may be typewritten beneath the written signature or at the left-hand side of the page with the initials of the stenographer. Letters from firms should be signed with the name of the firm, typewritten, and directly beneath that, in handwriting, the name of the person who is responsible for the letter. Sometimes in the signature of a letter from a firm the name of the firm is omitted; sometimes the writer's official capacity is indicated.

Right: D. C. Heath and Company
Allen Grant Odell
Right: John R. Clark
Business Manager

In business letters a woman should sign her full name and add below in parenthesis her title (*Mrs.*) and her husband's name. If she is a widow, she should sign her own name, preceded by *Mrs.* in parenthesis. An unmarried woman should sign her name preceded by *Miss* in parenthesis.

Right: Mary Osborn Williams.
(Mrs. John R. Williams.)
Right: (Mrs.) Mary Osborn Williams.
Right: (Miss) Elizabeth Elliot.

Signatures in social notes

435. In informal social notes, the name should never be preceded by the title (*Mrs.*, *Miss*). A married woman should sign her given name, her maiden name, if she chooses, and her surname.

Wrong: Mrs. John R. Williams.
Right: Mary Osborn Williams.

Literary Style

436. The following faults, characteristic of ill-educated writers and of writers without good taste, are to be especially avoided in letters: Certain vulgarisms:

(*a*) The omissions of pronouns, articles, and prepositions. Ellipsis

Bad: Received your letter of the 6th ult. While very doubtful of the result, will try to carry out your instructions.
Right: I have received your letter of August 6. (See Rule 437.) Though I am very doubtful about the results, I will try to carry out your instructions.

Bad: We enclose check for three dollars.
Right: We enclose a check for three dollars.

Bad: Direct letter care Thomas Cook.
Right: Direct the letter in care of Thomas Cook.

Bad: Mr. H. P. Thurston, Editor *Jenksville Patriot.*
Right: Mr. H. P. Thurston, editor of the Jenksville *Patriot.*

NOTE. — The omission of *I* is proper in diaries and in letters written in the style of a diary — *i.e.*, intended to present mere hasty memoranda jotted down without any attempt at completeness of form. Thus, Tennyson to his wife: "Slept at Spedding's where I found they expected me. Started this morning 11 a.m. Hay fever atrocious with irritation of railway, nearly drove me crazed, but could not complain, the only other occupant having a curiously split shoe for his better ease . . ." In such letters, clipped expressions harmonize with the context. In a letter, however, that is intended to be complete and regular in form, the omission of *I* and of other grammatically essential words is incongruous and in bad taste. (See Rule 437, below.)

(*b*) Writing "yours," "your favor," or "your esteemed favor" for *your letter.* (See Rule 45.) *Yours, your favor*

Yours received

(*c*) The use of the formula "yours of the 17th received," or "yours of the 17th at hand." Write a grammatically complete expression, such as "I have your letter of June 17."

In reply would say

(*d*) The use of the formula "in reply would say" or "will say." Write a grammatically complete expression, such as "In reply allow me to say."

I would, will, or *can say*

(*e*) The use of the formula "I would say," "I will say," or "I can say." Write "Allow me to say" or "I desire to say," or else omit any such introduction.

Same

(*f*) The use of the expression "same" or "the same." Use *it* or *they*. (See *Same* in Appendix A.)

Bad: Yours of the 3rd at hand, and in reply would say we are at present out of lamps desired but will send same as soon as possible.

Right: Thank you for your order of March 3. The lamps you wish are out of stock at present, but we will send them as soon as possible.

Please

(*g*) The use of the expression "please" alone. Rather write "Will you please."

Please find enclosed

(*h*) The use of the formula "Please find enclosed." Write "I enclose."

($10) ten dollars

(*i*) The use of the formula "($10) dollars" or "ten ($10) dollars." (See Rule 364.)

Name of city abbreviated

(*j*) The abbreviation of the name of a city; *e.g.*, of *Cincinnati* to "Cin.," of *Philadelphia* to "Phil.," or of *New York City* to "N. Y. City."

Participial close

and oblige

(*k*) Monotonously closing all letters with a sentence introduced by a participle, as "Hoping to hear soon . . ." "Thanking you again . . ."; or monotonously closing all letters of request with "and oblige." These old-fashioned endings lack force.

437. The rule often taught, that it is improper to begin the body of a letter with *I*, is nonsense; beginning with *I* is always permissible and often desirable. The use of *I*

438. The monotonously frequent use of *I* in letters is a common fault which it is well to guard against. But one should not, in order to avoid this fault, commit the worse fault of simply omitting *I;* as "Have not heard from you for a long time. Should think you ought to have written before this." The noticeably frequent use of *I* is nothing worse than an awkwardness; the ellipsis of *I* is a vulgarism. (See Rule 436 *a*.) As between the two, the awkwardness is preferable. To avoid the repetition of *I*, practice variety of sentence structure, not ellipsis. Not to be avoided by mere ellipsis

A Correctly Written Business Letter

Specimen letters

17 Lumber Exchange
Minneapolis, Minnesota
January 2, 1928

Mr. Henry Coleman
Chicago, Illinois
My dear Sir:

I have your letter of December 29. The house about which you inquire is still for sale.

Yours truly
Frank Shaw

A Correctly Written Letter of Friendship

Murray Hill Hotel,
New York City,
September 20, 1928.

My dear Mr. Crawford,

The composition you inquire about is L. Pabst's *Aria con Variazioni* in D flat major. I forget who pub-

lishes it; but you can get it by sending to Schirmer's New York house.

Yours sincerely,
Edith Morris.

Mr. George Crawford,
1301 Beacon Street,
Boston, Massachusetts.

Formal Notes in the Third Person

Solely in third person

439. Formal notes written in the third person should have no heading, no salutation, no complimentary close, no inside address, and no signature. They should be written consistently and solely in the third person; the writer should not refer to himself as *I* or to the addressee as *you*. Except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, and *Dr.*, no abbreviations whatever should be used; and numbers occurring in dates should — unlike those in ordinary letters — be spelled out. For information about other matters, the following examples will suffice:

No abbreviations

Numbers spelled out

Mrs. Burton requests the pleasure of Miss Irwin's company at dinner on Friday, May the second, at seven o'clock.
935 Webster Street,
April the twenty-third.

Miss Irwin accepts with pleasure Mrs. Burton's invitation to dinner on May the second.
1720 Princeton Avenue,
April the twenty-fourth.

Mr. Matthews regrets that, on account of illness, he is unable to accept Mr. and Mrs. Eliot's invitation for January the fifteenth.
500 Anderson Street,
January the tenth.

Use present tense

Note. — Use the present tense in letters of regret or acceptance.

Wrong: Mr. Smith will be pleased to accept . . .
[The being pleased to accept is present, not future.]

Right: Mr. Smith accepts; [or] Mr. Smith is pleased to accept.

Wrong: . . . regrets that he will be unable to accept . . . [The inability to accept is present, not future.]

Right: . . . regrets that he is unable to accept . . .

Sundry Mechanical Directions

Ink, paper, envelopes

440. Use black or blue-black ink in letter writing. Envelopes should always match the paper in color and quality, and envelopes should be of a size to receive the paper when it is properly folded.

Note. — Commercial letters are sometimes typewritten in brown or other color to harmonize with the tint of the stationery used. The use of ink in violet, green, or other striking color for social correspondence is a fad of questionable taste.

Writing-paper:

Four-page sheets

Flat sheets

441. Letter-paper consisting of sheets so folded that each sheet is like a little book of four pages, is suitable for all letters — commercial, professional, or social; and for the letters of private individuals, as distinguished from those of public officials and those of business firms. The use of flat sheets is best confined to business or professional correspondence. Writing-paper that is ruled, or limp and flimsy in texture, or conspicuous because of unusual color, should not be used for letters — except in case of emergency.

Margin at top

Margin at left

Legibility

442. The writing should begin an inch or two below the top of any page. It is best to keep a blank margin at least half an inch wide at the left side of every page. Rules 322–335 and 146–150 should be observed in letters as well as in other manuscripts. In typewritten letters a double space should be left between paragraphs.

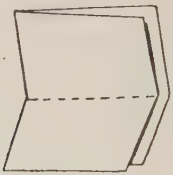
Flat sheets

443. When flat sheets of paper are used, it is best that only one side of each sheet be written on.

Four-page sheets

Order of pages

444. When four-page sheets are used, all four pages may be written on. The letter should be so written that a person reading the first page has at his left the fold, and at his right the coinciding edges opposite the fold. If the letter occupies more than one but not more than two pages of the sheet, the first and third pages may be written on and the second be left blank. If the letter occupies more than two pages, it is best that the pages be written on in their natural order — *viz.*, 1, 2, 3, 4; not in the order 1, 3, 2, 4 or 1, 4, 2, 3. The lines of writing on all the pages should be at right angles to the fold, not parallel with the fold.



Folding and enclosing: Four-page sheets

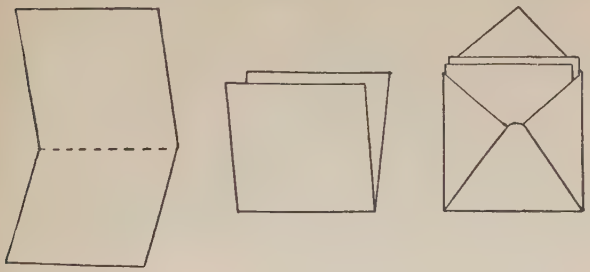
445. A letter on a four-page sheet should be enclosed in an envelope in which it will fit when folded with one horizontal crease through the center. The letter should be so folded that the upper and the lower halves of page 1 face each other; or, in other words, so that the horizontal crease will appear as a groove on pages 1 and 3, and as a ridge on pages 2 and 4. The letter should be so placed in the envelope that the horizontal crease is at the bottom of the envelope.

Flat sheets of note size

446. A letter written on flat sheets of paper of note size (approximately 6 × 8 inches) may be enclosed —

(*a*) In an envelope into which it will fit when folded with one crease running through the center. In this case, the two halves of page 1 should be made to face

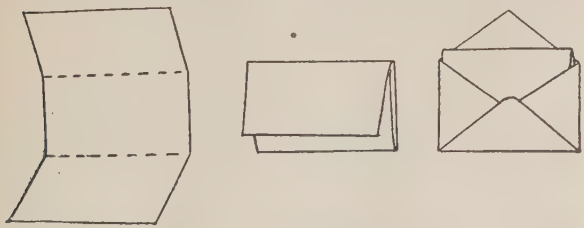
Envelope of note size



each other; or, in other words, the crease should appear, to a person reading page 1, as a groove, not as a ridge. Place the letter in the envelope with the crease at the bottom, and with the half containing the heading next to the face, not the sealed side, of the envelope.

(*b*) In an envelope of commercial size (approximately $3\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ inches). In this case, fold the letter

Commercial envelope



into three sections — a central section and two flaps. As the letter lies right side up on the table, fold up from the bottom about one-third and then from the top fold down over the lower third about one-fourth.

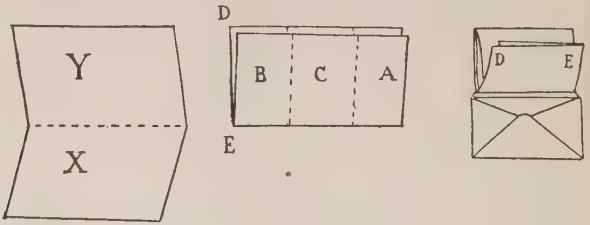
Writing parallel with short sides

The letter so folded should be placed in the envelope with the two flaps next to the back, not the face, of the envelope; with the top edge of the letter at the bottom of the envelope. The foregoing directions apply to letters in which the lines of writing run parallel to the short sides of the paper. Letters in which the lines run parallel to the long sides should be folded into the same shape; but the right third should be folded first, and the left part folded over it. Such a letter should be placed in the envelope with the flaps next to the back, with the left third flap on top of the right one, and with the outward edge of the left flap pointing upward.

Writing parallel with long sides

Flat sheets of full commercial size

447. A letter written on flat sheets of paper of full commercial size (approximately $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ inches) may be enclosed —



Commercial envelope

(*a*) In an envelope of commercial size (approximately $3\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ inches). As the letter lies face up on the table, raise the lower part and fold it upward over the upper part with a horizontal crease running slightly below the center. Keeping the upper part lying next the table, and keeping the horizontal crease toward you, raise the right-hand part and fold it toward the left, making a vertical crease about one-third of the distance from right to left. Finally, raise the

left-hand part and fold it toward the right, making a vertical crease about one-fourth of the distance from left to right. When page 1 is read, the horizontal crease and the two vertical creases that divide the upper half of the page should appear as grooves, and the two vertical creases that divide the lower half should appear as ridges. The letter, as folded, consists of a central section and two flaps. Place it in the envelope with the two flaps next to the sealed side, not next to the face, of the envelope; with the smaller flap on top of the larger one; and with the outward edge of the smaller flap pointing upward.

Official envelope

(*b*) In an envelope of official size (approximately 10 × 4 inches). In this case, it should be folded and enclosed according to the method shown in Rule 446 *b*.

Square envelope

(*c*) In an approximately square envelope, into which it will fit when folded with one horizontal and one vertical crease, both running through the center. In this case, make the horizontal fold first, laying the upper and the lower halves of page 1 face to face — or, in other words, making a crease that will appear as a groove in page 1; then fold with a vertical crease that will appear as a groove in the upper half of page 1, and as a ridge in the lower half. Place the letter in the envelope with the vertical crease at the bottom and the two coinciding halves of the horizontal crease at the right hand, with respect to a person looking at the sealed side of the envelope.

The fundamental principle underlying Rules 445–447

448. The foregoing rules in regard to the manner of folding letters and inserting them in envelopes are merely detailed applications of the simple rule of

courtesy: Fold and enclose the letter in such a way that the receiver will be able, with the least possible effort, to get it right side up in his hand, ready to read. A few experiments will show that if any of the directions in Rules 445–447, above, are disregarded in the folding and enclosing of a letter, the addressee, on taking the letter from the envelope and unfolding it in the natural way, will find it with the first page turned from him or with the writing upside down.

The Envelope

The superscription

449. In writing the address on an envelope, apply Rules 400, 401, 402, 418, and 436 *a*.

Examples:

Abbreviations not to be used

Mr. Thomas Howe
In care of Captain William Fisk
Wabasha
Minnesota

Street numbers

The Reverend Charles Wentworth,
463 Ninth Street,
Bridgeport,
Connecticut.

Bad:

Street not to be omitted

Editor Centerville Ledger,
#65 North Liberty,
Centerville,
O.

Right:

Ellipsis not to be used

For the Editor of the Centerville *Ledger*
65 North Liberty Street
Centerville
Ohio.

Margin and punctuation

450. The margin, straight or diagonal, and the punctuation, open or close, should correspond with those of the letter.

Right:

Professor Henry D. Lennington
1436 Putnam Avenue
Woonsocket
Rhode Island

Right:

Colonel Charles Kent,
The Southwick Hotel,
Kansas City,
Missouri.

The postage stamp

451. The postage stamp should be attached in the upper right-hand corner. It should be right side up, and its edges should be parallel to the edges of the envelope. A postage stamp upside down or affixed in a haphazard fashion raises against the sender of the letter a suspicion of slovenliness.

APPENDIX A

A Glossary of Miscellaneous Faulty Expressions

A.D. Means *in the year of the Lord.* Should not, therefore, be appended to the name of a *century.* Should not be appended to a date self-evidently modern. When used, should precede the date and should not be preceded by a preposition.

> Wrong: The sixth century A.D.
> Right: The sixth century after Christ.
> Right: Arminius died A.D. 21.

About. See **At about.**

Above. When used as an adjective (*e.g.,* The *above* statement) while not incorrect, is less desirable than *the foregoing, the preceding.*

Accept. See **Except.**

Ad. Slang abbreviation for *advertisement.* Write the word in full.

Addicted to, subject to. *Addicted to* means *devoted to persistently,* as to a habit or indulgence. Do not confuse with *subject to,* which means *exposed to some agency.* A man may be *addicted to* opium, but *subject to* attacks of rheumatism.

Affect. Means *to influence;* as "War is almost sure to affect trade seriously." Is never used as a noun — always as a verb. Often confused with *effect. Effect* (verb) means *to bring to pass;* as "He will effect a reconciliation." *Effect* (noun) means *result;* as "The drug had a fatal effect."

After. Is redundant when used with the past participle.

> Redundant: After having written.
> Right: After writing.

Aggravate. Means *to make worse;* as, "The shock aggravated his misery." Means also to exasperate, embitter (a person). In the sense of *provoke, arouse the evil feelings of,* it is familiar, not literary usage.

All right. There is no such word as *alright.*

All-round. There is no such word as *all-around* recognized by good usage. *All-round* is a colloquialism.

All the. "All the farther," "all the higher," "all the faster," or a similar expression should not be used mistakenly for *as far as,* etc. *All the* with an adverb means *by that amount, just so much.*

> Wrong: That was all the farther we went that day.
> Right: That was all the distance we went that day; or, That was as far as we went that day.
> Right: We shall go all the faster for our rest.

Allude. Means *to refer indirectly*. *Refer* means an open, direct mention. "When he *alluded* to profiteers, we knew whom he meant."

Already, all ready. Distinguish *already*, meaning *beforehand*, or *by this time*, from *all ready*, which means *completely ready*. "The hotel was already full." "They were all ready to go."

Alternative. Strictly, means *choice between two things*, or *one of two things between which choice is possible;* as "The alternative is difficult." "One alternative was to jump from the window; the other was to be burned to death." Expanded in familiar usage to mean a choice between more than two things.

Altogether, all together. "The story is altogether false" [*i.e.*, completely false]. "We were all together in the room."

And etc. Never put *and* before *etc.*

> Wrong: Pillows, flags, posters, and etc.
> Right: Pillows, flags, posters, etc.

Anent. The use of this synonym of *about* or *concerning* suggests affectation.

Any place, every place, no place, some place. Vulgarisms for *anywhere, everywhere, nowhere, somewhere.* (See Rule 28.)

Anywheres and nowheres. Vulgarism for *anywhere* and *nowhere.*

Appreciate. Means *to esteem adequately* or *to value highly;* as "I appreciate the service." Should not be modified by *greatly* or *very much.*

As (1). Should not be used too frequently in the sense of *because.* The conjunctions *for* or *since* may often be advantageously substituted. Where *as* occurs in this sense there should often be no conjunction.

> Bad: I want you to come home now as it is time for supper.
> Better: I want you to come home now; it is time for supper.

As (2). In negative statements and in questions implying a negative answer, good usage requires the correlatives *so . . . as* rather than the correlatives *as . . . as.*

> Doubtful: The modern nations are not as artistic as the ancient nations were.
> Preferable: The modern nations are not so artistic as the ancient nations were.

As (3). Not to be used in place of *that* or *whether.* "I don't know *that* [not *as*] we can go."

Asset. *Asset* means *property applicable in the payment of debts.* Should not be loosely used in the sense of *anything valuable or useful;* as, "Smith is an asset to the team."

At about. Prefer *about.*

> Inferior: He came at about three o'clock.
> Right: He came about three o'clock.

Aught. Means *anything.* The name of the symbol 0 is *naught,* not *aught.*

Auto. A colloquialism for *automobile.* Not yet proper in formal writing.

Avail. *Of no avail* is properly used only with some form of *be;* elsewhere use *to no purpose.*

> Wrong: He tried, but of no avail.
> Right: He tried, but to no purpose.
> Right: His attempt was of no avail.

Awful. Means *inspiring with awe;* as "The awful presence of the king." Colloquial or slang as epithet of disapproval. Say not "an awful mistake," but "a serious or disastrous mistake"; not "an awful blunder," but "a ludicrous blunder."

Badly. Colloquially used for *a great deal* or *very much.*

> Wrong: I want badly to see you.
> Right: I want very much to see you.

Balance. Bad English when used in the sense of *remainder,* except as a balance at the bank. (Cf. **Bank on, Take stock in.**)

> Bad: One was an Italian; the balance were Greeks.
> Right: One was an Italian; the rest (or the others) were Greeks.

Bank on, take stock in. Colloquial in the sense of *rely on, trust in, receive as trustworthy, confidently expect.* (Cf. **Balance.**)

Barbarous, barbaric. *Barbarous* means, in its restricted sense, *cruel; barbaric* is especially related to the barbarian love of noise or show, as, *barbaric* music.

Barn. Means *a farm building used for storing grain or hay.* Should not be used for *stable.*

Beg. When used in asking permission to do a thing, *beg* should govern a noun — *permission, leave,* or some synonym of these words.

> Elliptical: I beg to state. — I beg to differ. — I beg to be absent.
> Better: I beg leave to state. — I beg leave to differ. — I beg permission to be absent.

Besides. Means *additionally,* or *in addition to.* Not to be confused with *beside,* which is always a preposition, meaning "by the side of"; as, *beside* the house.

Between. Usually applies to only two persons or objects. For three or more, use *among.* But: "A railroad between Chicago, Philadelphia, and New York."

Blame . . . on. Crudely used instead of *blame.*

> Wrong: You needn't blame it on me.
> Right: You needn't blame me for it.

Borrow. Not to be confused with *lend.*

Vulgar: He refused to borrow me his knife.
Right: He refused to lend me his knife.
Right: I wanted to borrow his knife from him.

Bunch. Slang for *group* or *party.*

But. See **Hardly.**

But that, or **but what.** After *doubt, that* is considered more logical than *but that. But what* is incorrect.

Wrong: I had no doubt but what he would bite.
Right: I had no doubt that he would bite.

Calculate. A provincialism for *think, suppose, expect,* or *intend.*

Can. Denotes power or ability. Should not be used to denote permission.

Wrong: Can students hand in their theses in manuscript?
Right: May students [or, are students allowed to, or permitted to] hand in their theses in manuscript?

Can't seem. See **Seem.**

Cause. Complete such an expression as *the cause was* with a predicate noun or a noun clause. (See Rule 105.)

Wrong: The cause of his failure was on account of his imprudence.
Right: The cause of his failure was his imprudence; [or] . . . was that he was imprudent.

Certainly. The use of the word *certainly,* as a means of emphasis in relation to matters on which no doubt has been cast, is a colloquialism, and its over-use is monotonous, as in the expressions, "We certainly had a good time"; "That certainly was a hard examination"; "I certainly wonder where she bought that hat."

Characteristic. Means *a distinguishing quality;* as "His chief characteristic is absent-mindedness." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: One characteristic of my daily life is climbing College Hill.
Right: One incident of my daily life is climbing College Hill.

Charge. Should be combined, when it means *accuse,* not with *of,* but with *with.*

Wrong: They charged him of many crimes.
Right: They charged him with many crimes.

Claim. Means *to demand as due;* as "I claim the reward." Colloquial for *assert* or *maintain,* when there is no question of right, title, or advantage.

Wrong: He claimed that the William Tell story was only a legend.
Right: He asserted that the William Tell story was only a legend.

Coincidence. Means *the occurrence of two events at the same time or in remarkable connection with each other;* as "My forgetting my ticket and Bob's appearance just then with a ticket he didn't need, made a lucky coincidence." Should not be used to designate a single event.

Company. A vulgarism for *companion, escort,* or the plurals of these words.

Complected. Not to be used for *complexioned.*

Wrong: A light-complected girl.
Right: A light-complexioned girl.

Conscience, consciousness, conscious, conscientiousness. *Conscience* is *the power of making moral distinctions;* not to be confused with *consciousness,* which is simply *the power of being aware of anything. Conscience* is *moral consciousness.* Similarly, distinguish *conscious,* an adjective meaning *aware* or *mentally alert,* and *conscientiousness,* a noun meaning *loyalty to conscience.*

Considerable. A colloquialism when used as a noun.

Wrong: He lost considerable in the fire.
Right: He lost considerable property [or, a good deal of property] in the fire.

Contemplate. Should not be combined with a preposition.

Wrong: He contemplated on [or over] a trip to Alaska.
Right: He contemplated a trip to Alaska.

Contemptible. Means *worthy of being despised;* as "He is a contemptible sneak." Not to be confused with *contemptuous,* which means *showing scorn;* as "He made a contemptuous answer."

Contemptuous. See **Contemptible.**

Continual. Not synonymous with *continuous,* according to modern usage. *Continual* means *occurring in close succession, frequently repeated;* as "Continual hindrances discouraged us," "He coughs continually." *Continuous* means *without cessation, continuing uninterrupted;* as "Continuous opposition discouraged us," "He slept continuously for ten hours."

Continuous. See **Continual.**

Could of. See **Of.**

Couldn't seem. See **Seem.**

Credible, credulous, creditable. Credible means believable. Distinguish from *credulous,* meaning *easily imposed on, believing too easily,* and from *creditable,* which means *praiseworthy.*

Criticize. May mean *to censure,* but may mean merely *to pass judgment on,* whether favorable or adverse.

Crowd. Not to be used for *party* or *company.*

Cunning. Means *artful, ingenious,* or *giving evidence of art or ingenuity;* as "a cunning intriguer," "cunning workmanship." As *pretty* or *amusing* it is a colloquial Americanism.

Cute. Slang. Use *pretty, vivacious, lively, amusing, dainty, piquant, engaging,* or some other word in reputable use and of definite meaning.

Data, phenomena, strata. Plural, not singular forms. The singular forms are *datum* (rarely used), *phenomenon,* and *stratum.*

Date. Inelegant for *engagement* or *appointment.*

Deal (1). Should be combined with *with,* not with *on* or *of,* when the intended meaning is *discuss.*

> Wrong: He deals on three subjects.
> Wrong: He deals of three subjects.
> Right: He deals with three subjects.

Deal (2). Colloquialism for *transaction, agreement,* or *arrangement.*

Demand. Means *to claim or call for peremptorily.* The object of this verb should be the thing claimed, never the person from whom the thing is claimed.

> Wrong: Japan demanded Russia to leave Manchuria.
> Right: Japan demanded that Russia leave Manchuria. [The object of "demanded" is the substantive clause "that . . . Manchuria."]

Demean. *To demean oneself* is merely *to conduct oneself;* as "He demeaned himself as a gentleman." Incorrect in the sense of *to lower or degrade oneself.*

Depot. Best applied to a building for the deposit of merchandise. To designate a building for the accommodation of passengers, it is better to say *station.*

Different. Should not be completed by a *than* clause, but by a *from* clause. *Different to* is correct according to British usage.

> Wrong: The method is different than the one that formerly prevailed.
> Right: The method is different from the one that formerly prevailed.

Diner, sleeper, smoker. Colloquial in the United States for *dining car, sleeping car,* and *smoking car.* Not vulgarisms.

Disinterested. Means *without self-interest, unselfish;* as "the judge's disinterested performance of his duty." Not to be confounded with *uninterested.*

Done. An ungrammatical error when used as the past tense of *do,* or as an additional auxiliary indicating past time. Typical illiterate sentences are "He done fine," "He done real good," for "He did well," (see **fine** (1), **real,** and **good**); and "I done lost it," for "I lost it" or "I have lost it."

Don't (1). A contraction of *do not.* Therefore ungrammatical when used with a subject in the third person singular. (See Rule 206.)

Wrong: He don't know.
Right: He doesn't know.
Right: I don't know, we don't know, you don't know, and they don't know.

Don't (2). This contraction and other similar ones are suitable for conversation, but not for formal writing.

Dove. Should not be used as the past tense of *dive.* Say "dived."

Due to. Should be attached to a substantive and not to an idea implied in the sentence. Should not be used in place of *because of, on account of, owing to,* which have become compound prepositions.

Wrong: The forces were divided, due to a misunderstanding.
Right: The forces were divided through [or because of] a misunderstanding.
Right: The division of the forces was due to a misunderstanding.

Each other. Strictly used as referring to only two, as distinguished from *one another,* which refers to more than two; but the expressions are generally used interchangeably.

Effect. See **Affect.**

Either, neither. Preferably used to designate one of two persons or things; less commonly, one of three or more.

Less common: I asked Leahy, Mahoney, and McGinty, but neither of them was willing.
Preferable: I asked Leahy, Mahoney, and McGinty, but none of them [or . . . no one of them] was willing.

Elegant. Means *excelling in the power to discriminate properly and select properly,* or *giving evidence of such excellence;* as "an elegant gentleman," "elegant ornamentation." Should not be used loosely. Say not "an elegant view," but a "beautiful view"; not "an elegant game of football," but "an excellent or a masterly game"; not "an elegant march," but "a spirited or rousing march"; not "an elegant pie," but "a delicious pie." Choose an adjective that expresses your meaning precisely.

Element. Means a *component part;* as "The elements of training are exercise, diet, and regularity." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: Next, the logs are "driven" down stream. Great danger besets the lumbermen in this element.
Right: Next, the logs are "driven" down stream. Great danger besets the lumbermen in this process.

Else. To be followed by *but,* not by *than.* Often used redundantly, as "no one else but him" for "no one but him."

Redundant: It is nothing else but selfishness.
Right: It is nothing but selfishness.

Both expressions, *somebody else's* and *somebody's else,* are right; the former is preferred, the latter is pedantic.

Enormity, enormousness. *Enormity* ordinarily means *outrageous wickedness. Enormousness* means *of abnormal size.*

Enough. A result complement limiting *enough* should have the form of an infinitive, not of a clause introduced by *that* or *so that.*

Wrong: It was near enough that I could touch it.
Right: It was near enough for me to touch it.

Wrong: There is humor enough so that the story isn't dull.
Right: There is humor enough to keep the story from being dull.

Enthuse. The word is unknown to good usage. (See Rule 29.)

Vulgar: He doesn't enthuse me.
Right: He doesn't rouse any enthusiasm in me.

Vulgar: She never enthuses.
Right: She never becomes enthusiastic.

Etc. The use of *etc.* is incongruous in a context intended to be artistic. Use a definite term in place of *etc.* or simply omit *etc.*

Wrong: She was more beautiful, witty, virtuous, etc., than any other lady.
Right: She was more beautiful, witty, virtuous, and loyal than any other lady.
Right: She was more beautiful, witty, and virtuous than any other lady.

In any context, avoid the vague use of *etc.;* use it only to dispense with useless repetition or to represent terms that are entirely obvious.

Every place. See **Any place.**

Every so often. A colloquial expression for *at regular periods or intervals.*

Except (verb) means to *exclude;* as "He alone was excepted from the amnesty." *Except* (preposition) means *with the exception* (*i.e., exclusion*) *of;* as "All's lost except honor," *Except* is not to be confused with *accept,* which means *to receive.*

Exceptional, exceptionable. *Exceptional,* which means *unusual,* is to be distinguished from *exceptionable,* which means *objectionable.* "It was an exceptional offer." "Your language is exceptionable."

Expect. Should not be used for *suppose.*

Wrong: I expect it's time for us to go.
Right: I suppose it's time for us to go.

Extra. Not to be used in the sense of *unusually,* as "an extra fine day."

Factor. Means *a force or agent coöperating with other forces or agents to produce a certain result;* as "The factors of success are industry and perseverance." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: Being ducked in the lake is an inevitable factor in the freshman's experience.
Right: Being ducked in the lake is an inevitable part of the freshman's experience.

Falls, ways, woods. Plurals, not singulars.

Wrong: Go a little ways down stream till you come to a falls. Beside it is a woods.
Right: Go a little way down stream till you come to a fall. Beside it is a wood.
Right: The falls of the river; the woods and the fields; the ways of men.

Faze. A colloquialism.

Bad: You could not faze her by your criticisms.
Right: You could not daunt her by your criticisms.

Fellow. A colloquialism when used to mean a *person*, an *individual*.

Colloquial: Many of the fellows are wearing fur coats.
Right: Many of the men are wearing fur coats.

Fine (1). Means *refined, delicate, free from impurity, of excellent quality:* "fine cutlery," "fine dust," "fine sense of honor," "fine gold." Loosely used it is a general epithet of approval: "a fine fellow," "a fine day," "a fine ship."

Fine (2). Correctly used as a predicate adjective: "You look fine"; "I feel fine." But "Going fine" is a colloquialism.

First-rate. May be used as an adjective but never as an adverb.

Right: It is a first-rate building.
Wrong: He plays tennis first-rate.
Right: He plays tennis very well; [or] He plays a first-rate game of tennis.

Firstly. Most writers prefer *first*, even when followed by *secondly, thirdly*, etc.

Fix (1). Slang for *plight, situation*, or *condition*.

Fix (2). Colloquial in the United States for *repair* or *arrange*. The expression "fix up" used in one of these senses is likewise a colloquialism.

Former, latter. Properly used to designate one of two persons or things, not one of three or more. (Cf. **Either, neither.**) For designating one of three or more, say "first," "first-named," "first-mentioned," or "last," "last-named," "last-mentioned."

Frighten, scare. Provincialisms when used intransitively.

Wrong: Does the horse frighten easily?
Right: Is the horse frightened easily?

Genial, congenial. *Genial* means *cordial and pleasant in manner*. Do not confuse it with *congenial*, which means *suited to one's disposition;* as "a congenial friend," "a congenial occupation."

Gent. A vulgarism for *gentleman.*

Gentleman, lady. Terms properly used to designate persons of refined speech and manners, as distinguished from ill-bred or uncultivated people; the use of them to designate mere sex is incorrect.

Wrong: Saleslady, business gentleman, lady stenographer. — There are lady cab-drivers in Paris. — There are more ladies than gentlemen who play the piano. — Cornell admits ladies, but Williams admits only gentlemen. — Ladies' cloak room.

Right: Saleswoman, business man, woman stenographer. — There are woman cab-drivers in Paris. — There are more women than men who play the piano. — Cornell admits women, but Williams admits only men. — Women's cloak room.

The use of *man* and *woman* need never be shunned; even where *lady* or *gentleman* may be used correctly, *man* or *woman* is equally polite, and is often preferable.

Right: Is your wife a Massachusetts woman? — You are the only woman I know who drives a motor. — Are you the man I met last spring in Denver?

Gentleman friend, lady friend. These terms, not in themselves objectionable, have, through the use that has been made of them, become objectionable. Prefer *man friend* (plural: *man friends*) or *gentleman of one's acquaintance, woman friend* (plural: *woman friends*) or *lady of one's acquaintance.*

Get. "I didn't *get to go*" is a provincialism for "was not able to go." "She *got around* the old lady" is colloquial for "persuaded," "coaxed." *Get on to, get next to, get away with, get across, get left,* are slang.

Get up. A colloquialism for *organize, institute, compose, prepare, arrange, print, bind, dress, decorate,* or *ornament.* "A get-up" is a colloquialism for *a dress, a costume.*

Going on.

Tautological and provincial: How old is he? Sixteen, going on seventeen.
Right: How old is he? Sixteen.

Good. An adjective; must not be used as an adverb.

Wrong: Do it good this time.
Right: Do it well this time.

Got. The perfect tense is colloquial in the sense of *possess.* It is correct in the sense of *obtained.*

Colloquial: Have you got a knife with you?
Preferable: Have you a knife with you?
Right: Have you got what you wanted?

Got up, gotten up. See **Get up.**

Gotten. Often used still, but "got" is the accepted modern form.

Undesirable: He has gotten his reward at last.
Right: He has got his reward at last.

Grand. Means *on a large scale, imposing;* as "a grand mountain range." Should not be used loosely. Say not "a grand day," but "a beautiful or brilliant day."

Grip. Colloquial in the United States for *valise* or *bag. Gripsack* is likewise a colloquialism.

Guess. Colloquial in the United States to express supposition, expectation, or intention. Say "think," "suppose," "expect," "mean," or "intend."

Had better, had best, had rather. Entirely grammatical and fully approved by good usage. *Would better, would best,* and *would rather* are not preferable. *Had better* is preferable to *would better; had best* and *would best, had rather* and *would rather* are equally good.

Correct but undesirable: You would better not stay long.
Right: You had better not stay long.
Right: They had best attempt no violence.
Right: I had rather go than stay.

Had have or **had of.** Often incorrectly used for *had.*

Bad: If we had have [or had of] tried, he would have succeeded.
Right: If he had tried, he would have succeeded.

Had ought. See **Ought.**

Hardly, scarcely, only, but. Should not be used with a negative.

Wrong: It was so misty that we couldn't hardly see.
Right: It was so misty that we could hardly see.

Wrong: For a minute I couldn't scarcely tell where I was.
Right: For a minute I could scarcely tell where I was.

Wrong: They are not allowed to go only on Saturdays.
Right: They are allowed to go only on Saturdays.

Wrong: There isn't but one store.
Right: There is but one store.

Have got. See **Got.**

Heap, heaps. Vulgarisms for *very much, a great deal, a great many.*

Hear to it. A vulgarism. Say "consent to it," or "allow it."

Help (1). Colloquial in the United States for *a servant, servants,* or *employees.*

Help (2). Should not be followed by *but* when used in the sense of *avoid;* should be followed by a gerund.

Wrong: I can't help but regret.
Right: I can't help regretting.

Hired girl. Colloquial for *maid* or *servant.*

Home. Properly used as an adverb expressing motion, as "He went home." "He is home" is wrong when it means "He is at home," but right when it means "He has come home." (See Rule 113, note.)

Honorable. See **Reverend.**

Hung. Improper when used in reference to an execution. Say "hanged."

> Wrong: He was found guilty and hung.
> Right: He was found guilty and hanged.
> Right: We hung the flag on the balcony.

Hustle. Colloquial in the United States when used intransitively to mean *hasten, hurry,* or *be energetic or industrious.* Correctly used with a direct object.

> Colloquial: People were hustling about in confusion.
> Right: People were hurrying about in confusion.
> Right: The police hustled the loiterers from the hall.

Hustler. A colloquialism for *an energetic or capable person.*

i.e. Means *that is;* denotes, therefore, that what follows is equivalent to what precedes. Should not be used when what follows is not equivalent to what precedes, or when *that is* will not fit grammatically into the place of *i.e.*

> Right: The act is treated as a capital crime — *i.e.*, a crime punishable by death. ["A crime punishable by death" is equivalent to "a capital crime"; and *that is* may be grammatically substituted for "*i.e.*"]
> Wrong: I like to read the Bible, *i.e.*, some of the stories in the Old Testament. ["Some of the stories in the Old Testament" is not equivalent to "the Bible."]
> Wrong: I like some parts of the Bible, *i.e.*, the stories in the Old Testament. [*That is* cannot be grammatically substituted for "*i.e.*"]
> Right: I like some parts of the Bible — namely, [or *viz.*,] the stories in the Old Testament.
> Right: He had committed lese-majesty — *i.e.*, had given an affront to the Emperor. ["Had . . . Emperor" is equivalent to "had . . . majesty" and *that is* may properly be substituted for "*i.e.*"]

If. A colloquialism used as a synonym of *whether* after *see, ask, learn, know, doubt,* and the like.

> Inadvisable: I don't know if I can.
> Right: I don't know whether I can.

Ilk. An archaic adjective meaning *same.* In the expression *of that ilk,* as correctly used, *ilk* is an adjective modifying *estate* understood; "Sir George Urquhart of that ilk" means *Sir George Urquhart*

of that same (estate) — i.e., Sir George Urquhart of Urquhart. The use of *ilk* as a noun meaning *kind* is a blunder.

Wrong: I'm not of her ilk, I'm glad to say.
Right: I'm not of her sort, I'm glad to say.

In. Generally incorrect when used to express motion. Say "into."

Wrong: He went in the bank.
Right: He went into the bank.

In back of. *In front of* is correct; "in back of" is a vulgarism. Say "behind."

In our midst. See **Midst.**

Incredible, incredulous. The former means *unbelievable;* the latter, *disinclined to believe.* "He had caught an incredible number of fish, and I was incredulous when he told me."

Individual. Should not be used indiscriminately for *person.* Properly used to mean *individual person.*

Right: He made a general address to the class, and also gave special advice to the individuals in the class.
Wrong: He is a tall, gaunt individual.
Right: He is a tall, gaunt fellow [or person, or man].

Indulge. Means (*a*) *to treat with forbearance;* as "Will you indulge me for a moment?" or (*b*) *to put no restraint upon oneself;* as "He indulges in [*i.e.*, puts no restraint upon himself in regard to] gambling." *Indulge in* is often misused for *practice* or *engage in.*

Bad: Practice in surveying is indulged in in the autumn.
Right: Practice in surveying is engaged in [or taken] in the autumn.

Inferior. See **Superior.**

Ingenious, ingenuous. An inventor is *ingenious;* a person of a frank, trusting nature is *ingenuous.*

Inside. Does not require *of* following. Say simply "inside."

Right: They were trapped inside the walls.

Inside of. A colloquial Americanism for *within,* in time expressions.

Bad: It will disappear inside of a week.
Right: It will disappear within a week.

Instance, instant, incident. *Instance* means *a single occurrence, an example;* as "I will give you an instance of this habit." *Incidents* are *happenings.*

Just. A colloquialism when used as an intensive.

Bad: I shall be just delighted to come.
Right: I shall be quite delighted to come.

Kind, sort.

Crude and incorrect: I don't like those kind [or those sort] of photographs.
Right: I don't like that kind [or that sort] of photographs.

Kind of, sort of (1). A low colloquialism when used to modify verbs or adjectives. Say "somewhat," "somehow," "for some reason," "rather," or "after a fashion."

Bad: People who kind of chill you . . .
Right: People who somehow chill you . . .

Bad: The man who does nothing but study, gets sort of dull.
Right: The man who does nothing but study, gets rather dull.

Bad: I kind of felt my way at first.
Right: I felt my way, after a fashion, at first.

Kind of, sort of (2). Should not be followed by *a* or *an*.

Inelegant: What kind of a house is it?
Right: What kind of house is it?

Inelegant: It is a sort of a castle.
Right: It is a sort of castle.

Kindly. Misused in business letters.

Wrong: I thank you very kindly. [*Implies that the writer is doing a kindness.*]
Right: I thank you very much.
Right: I thank you for your kindness.

Wrong: I would kindly ask you to send me your circular. [*Implies that the writer is doing a kindness to the receiver of the letter.*]
Right: Will you kindly [please] send me your circular?

Lady, lady friend. See **Gentleman** and **Gentleman friend.**

Latter. See **Former.**

Lay. Often confounded with *lie*. Remember that *lay* is the causative of *lie; i.e., to lay* means *to cause to lie*. Remember the principal parts of each verb:

I lie	I lay	I have lain.
I lay	I laid	I have laid.

Learn. A provincialism when used in the sense of *teach;* as "He learned us our lessons."

Leave go of. A colloquialism. Say "leave hold of" or "let go."

Wrong: He left go of the rope.
Right: He left hold of the rope; [or] He let go the rope.

Less. Should not be used in place of *fewer*.

Wrong: Less men were hurt this year than last.
Right: Fewer men were hurt this year than last.

Liable. Means (*a*) *easily susceptible;* as "It is liable to injury"; or (*b*) *likely;* as "It is liable to be misunderstood." But NOTE: *Liable* is not properly used in the sense of *likely* except in designating an injurious or undesirable event which may befall a person or thing.

Wrong: We are liable to have a clear day tomorrow.
Right: We are likely, etc.

Like. Incorrect when used to introduce a subject with a verb. Say "as" or "as if." *Like* is correct when followed by a substantive without a verb.

Vulgar: He acted like the rest did.
Right: He acted as the rest did.
Right: He acted like the rest.

Vulgar: I felt like I had done something generous.
Right: I felt as if I had done something generous.
Right: I felt like a philanthropist.

Liked. Should not be compounded with *would* or *should.*

Bad: He would liked to have gone.
Right: He would have liked to go. (See Rule 237.)

Likely. Not in good use as an adverb meaning *probably* except after *most* or *quite.*

Line. The following uses of *line* are loose and incorrect:

(*a*) The loose use of *line* in the sense of *kind* or *business,* or in other senses for which there are precise words.

Bad: What line of work are you now doing?
Right: What kind of work are you now doing?

Bad: I am now engaged in the hardware line.
Right: I am now engaged in the hardware business.

(*b*) The use of *line* shown in the following *Bad* examples.

Bad: I like anything in the card line.
Right: I like any game of cards.

Bad: Was there anything in the refreshment line?
Right: Were there any refreshments?

Bad: He said a few things in the advice line.
Right: He gave me a little advice; [or] He said a few things by way of advice.

Bad: I'm not very good in the walking line.
Right: I'm not very good at walking.

(*c*) The use of "along the line of" or "in the line of" for *in connection with, in regard to, about, on the subject of, in the nature of, by way of, in, of.*

Bad: He was also famous along the line of literature.
Right: He was also famous in literature.

Bad: The dean said some things along the line of athletics.
Right: The dean said some things about athletics.

Bad: We are planning something in the line of a surprise.
Right: We are planning something by way of surprise.

(*d*) The use of "along this or that line" or "in this or that line," for *in* or *on* or *in regard to this* or *that subject*, *in this* or *that respect*, *of this* or *that sort*.

Bad: Let me tell you something along that line.
Right: Let me tell you something in connection with that subject.

Bad: If he is so weak in physics and chemistry, he needs some tutoring along those lines.
Right: If he is so weak in physics and chemistry, he needs some tutoring in those subjects.

Bad: I need some tacks. Have you anything along that line?
Right: I need some tacks. Have you anything of that sort?

Lines. A provincialism for *reins*.

Loan. Objectionable as a verb.

Inelegant: He loaned me a book.
Right: He lent me a book.
Right: The loan was a great assistance.

Locate. A colloquialism for *settle*. Correct when used transitively.

Bad: He located in Ohio.
Right: He settled in Ohio.
Right: He located his factory in Lima.

Lose out, win out. Slang, not proper except in connection with sports.

Lot, lots, a whole lot. Colloquialisms for *much*, *many*, *a great deal*.

Bad: We had lots of fun on my grandfather's farm.
Right: We had a great deal of fun on my grandfather's farm.

Lovely. Means *lovable* or *inspiring love;* as "a lovely character." A colloquialism when used loosely. Say not "a lovely time," but "a pleasant or delightful time"; not "a lovely drive," but "an interesting or pleasant drive"; not "a lovely costume," but "a handsome, or dainty, or rich, or striking, or elegant costume." Avoid especially the expression *perfectly lovely*. Choose the adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

Luxuriant. Means *of rank* or *vigorous growth*. Not to be confounded with *luxurious*, which is related to indulgence in pleasures of the senses. *A luxurious home*, but *luxuriant vegetation*.

Mad. Means *insane*. Colloquial for *angry*.

May of. See **Of.**

Mean. Means *lowly* or *base*. Colloquial when used to mean *cruel*, *vicious*, *unkind*, or *ill-tempered*.

Messrs. The plural of *Mr.* Like *Mr.*, *Messrs.* should never be used without a name or names following it. (See Rule 422.)

Vulgar: Messrs., will you come in? [To say this is like saying "Mister, will you come in?" or "Mrs., I have come."]
Right: Gentlemen, will you come in?
Right: Messrs. Zangwill and Barrie met the Messrs. McCarthy.

Midst. The expressions *our midst, your midst,* and *their midst* preceded by a preposition have been censured by critics and have gathered many ludicrous associations. Instead of "in our midst," say "in the midst of us" or "among us." Instead of "from our midst," many writers use "from the midst of us" or "from among us," or substitute for *midst* some nouns such as *neighborhood, community, fellowship,* etc.

Might of. See **Of.**

Miss. Like *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Messrs.*, *Miss*, when used as a title, must always be followed by a name. (Cf. **Messrs.**)

Vulgar: My dear Miss.
Right: My dear Madam; [or] My dear Miss Smith.

Most. Dialectic for *almost.* (See Rule 29.)

Mrs. The combination of *Mrs.* with a husband's title is incorrect. *Mrs.* may be followed only (1) by the woman's surname, (2) by her husband's Christian name (or initials) and surname, or (3) if the woman is a widow, by her own Christian name and surname; the husband's *title,* if stated at all, should be put in another part of the sentence.

Right: Mrs. Boughton. [1]
Right: Mrs. John C. Boughton. [2]
Right (for a widow): Mrs. Mary Dole. [3]
Wrong: Mrs. Professor Yates, Mrs. Dr. Fairbanks, Mrs. President Hughes, Mrs. Bishop Ross, Mrs. Rev. Fisher, Mrs. Captain Johnson.
Right: Mrs. Richard E. Yates; Mrs. Fairbanks, wife of Dr. Fairbanks; Mrs. Louisa Hughes, widow of President Hughes; Mrs. Jeremiah Ross; Mrs. Noah Fisher; Mrs. C. V. Johnson.

Much. Not to be used for *very.*

Wrong: My work is much different this year.
Right: My work is very different this year.

Must of. See **Of.**

Mutual. Incorrect, according to modern usage, in the sense of *shared in common;* for this meaning the proper adjective is *common. Mutual,* properly used, means *reciprocal, interchanged.*

Wrong: As we conversed, we found that we had several mutual friends in Portland. [The title of Dickens's

novel *Our Mutual Friend* is a quotation from some ill-educated persons in the story; it therefore furnishes no good argument for the correctness of the expression "mutual friend."]

Right: As we conversed, we found that we had several common friends in Portland.

Wrong: The two men had a mutual interest in sculpture.
Right: . . . a common interest in sculpture.

Right: They practiced mutual forbearance and aid [*i.e.*, each one helped and bore with the other]. — Their faces showed a mutual hatred [*i.e.*, showed that each hated the other]. — Mutual friendship [*i.e.*, friendship interchanged between two persons]. — Common friendship [*i.e.*, friendship shared by two persons for a third].

Myself. Not to be used for *I* and not as a rule for *me*. *Himself, herself,* and *themselves* are used like *myself*.

Right: I myself will attend to it.

Wrong: My wife and myself will go.
Right: My wife and I will go.

Wrong: This is for you and myself.
Right: This is for you and me.

Especially avoid expressions like "yourself and guests," "myself and brother." Say "you and your guests," "my brother and I."

Near-by. A colloquialism when used as an adjective. (See Rule 28.)

Colloquial: A near-by house.
Right: A neighboring, or adjacent, house; [or] A house that stood near by.

Nearly. Often misused for *near*.

Wrong: He came nearly getting hurt.
Right: He came near getting hurt.

Neither. See **Either.**

Nice. Means *keen and precise in discrimination*, or *delicately or precisely made;* as "nice judge of values," "a nice discrimination." A colloquialism when used to mean *pleasant*. Say not "a nice fellow," but "an agreeable, or admirable, or conscientious, or honorable fellow"; not "a nice time," but "a pleasant time"; not "He is nice to us," but "He is kind or courteous to us." Choose the adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

No good. A vulgarism when used adjectively. Say "worthless," "of no value."

No place. See **Any place.**

No use. Incorrect when used adjectively. Say "of no use," "of no value," or "unsuccessful."

Notorious. Means *of bad repute;* as "a notorious gambler." Not to be used for *famous* or *celebrated*.

Not. A double negative is forbidden by modern usage.

Wrong: I could not find it nowhere.
Right: I could find it nowhere.
Right: I could not find it anywhere.

Not to exceed. Should not be used except in giving or quoting orders or directions. Often misused for *not more than.*

Right: They were authorized to spend any sum, not to exceed $500,000. [See Rule 360 *f.*]
Wrong: The trains are composed of not to exceed twenty cars.
Right: The trains are composed of not more than twenty cars.

Nowhere near. A vulgarism for *not nearly.*

Observance. Means *the act of paying respect or obedience.* Not to be confused with *observation,* which means *the act of inspecting, looking at.*

Right: The observance of Good Friday.
Right: From his observation of the sky, he judged that a storm was approaching.

Observation. See **Observance.**

Of. *Could of, may of, might of, must of, should of,* and *would of* are illiterate corruptions of *could have, may have, might have, must have, should have,* and *would have.*

Off of. Incorrect for *off.*

Wrong: Keep off of the grass.
Right: Keep off the grass.

On the side. Slang for *incidental, collateral, occasional,* or the corresponding adverbs.

Only. See **Hardly.**

Or. Should not be correlated with *neither;* use *nor.*

Wrong: Neither the long Arctic night or any other cause . . .
Right: Neither the long Arctic night nor any other cause . . .

Oral. See **Verbal.**

Other times. *Sometimes* is an adverb; *other times* is not. Say "at other times."

Ought. The combination of *ought* with *had* is conspicuously bad English.

Wrong: You hadn't ought to have entered.
Right: You ought not to have entered.

Wrong: We ought to send, had we not?
Right: We ought to send, ought we not?

Ought to of. Vulgarism for *ought to have.*

Vulgar: You ought to of waited.
Right: You ought to have waited.
Right: You should have waited.

Out loud. Not a permissible expression. Say *aloud.*

Outside (1). Does not require *of* following. Say simply "outside."

Right: Outside the barn the cattle were shivering.

Outside (2). *Outside of* should not be used for *aside from.*

Wrong: Outside of this mistake, it is very good.
Right: Aside from this mistake, it is very good.

Over with. *With* is superfluous.

Wrong: The regatta is over with.
Right: The regatta is over.

Overly. A vulgarism. Say "over."

Vulgar: I'm not overly anxious.
Right: I'm not over-anxious.

Pair, set. Singular, not plural, forms.

Wrong: Two pair of gloves and three set of chisels.
Right: Two pairs of gloves and three sets of chisels.

Part. See **Portion.**

Partake of. Means *to take a part (of something) in common with others, to share with others;* as "Good and evil alike partake of the air and the sunshine," "The whole delegation partook of his hospitality." The use of *partake of* as if it were synonymous with *eat* is a blunder and usually an affectation.

Party. Means *a person or group of persons taking part (in some transaction).* Incorrect when used to mean simply *person.*

Right: The parties to the marriage were both young.
Wrong: The party who wrote that article must have been a scholar.

Per. Use *per* with Latin words, such as *annum, diem, cent;* not, as a rule, with English words. Avoid the expression *as per;* say *according to.*

Inelegant: Three dollars per day; one suicide per week; seven robberies per month; $3200 per year; two deaths per thousand; thirteen cents per gallon.
Right: Three dollars a day [or *per diem*]; one suicide a week; seven robberies a month; $3200 a year [or *per annum*]; two deaths for every thousand; thirteen cents a gallon.

Per cent. It is better to use *per cent* only after a numeral. (See Rule 28.)

Wrong: A large per cent were Chinese.
Right: Twenty *per cent* were Chinese. [See Rules 241 *b* and 385.]
Right: A large percentage were Chinese.

Phase. Means *appearance* or *aspect;* as "That phase of the question I haven't considered." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: I began to engage in all the different phases of college pleasure.
Right: I began to engage in all the different kinds of college pleasure.

Phenomena. A plural noun. See **Data.**

Phone. A colloquialism. Not yet proper in formal discourse.

Piano. Should not be used to mean *instruction in piano-playing.*

Wrong: She is taking piano.
Right: She is taking piano lessons.

Piece. A provincialism when used in the sense of *distance* or *short distance.*

Plan. Should not be combined with *on.* Say simply "plan."

Wrong: We planned on taking a walk.
Right: We planned taking a walk; [or] We planned to take a walk.

Plenty (1). A colloquialism when used as an adjective. Say "plentiful." (See Rule 28.)

Wrong: Wheat is plenty.
Right: Wheat is plentiful.
Right: There is plenty of wheat.

Plenty (2). Colloquial when used as an adverb. (See Rule 27.)

Wrong: It is plenty good enough.
Right: It is quite good enough.

Portion. Best used in its restricted sense, as *a proportionate* part or share, and distinguished from *part.* "A portion of the inheritance"; "a part of the day."

Postal. An adjective. Inelegant for *postal card.*

Posted. Incorrect for *informed.*

Wrong: Keep me posted.
Right: Keep me informed.

Wrong: He is well posted about politics.
Right: He is well informed about politics.

Practical. Means *related to actual use,* as opposed to theoretical or ideal. Do not confuse with *practicable,* which means *capable of being put into practice.* A *practical* scheme (*i.e.,* valuable or sensible) may not be *practicable* until a better opportunity.

Prefer. The thing about which something is said to be preferred should be made the object of the preposition *to,* never put into a *than* clause.

Wrong: I should prefer to go there than anywhere else.
Right: I should prefer going there to going anywhere else.

Propose. Means *to offer*. Should not be used for *to purpose* or *to intend*, though now approved by good dictionaries.

Inadvisable: I did not propose to divulge the secret.
Right: I did not purpose [or intend] to divulge the secret.

Proposition. Means *a thing proposed* or *the act of proposing;* as "He made a proposition to sell." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning. Avoid especially the use of *proposition* for *work* or *task*.

Slang: To sink that shaft was a hard proposition.
Right: To sink that shaft was a hard piece of work.

Bad: The library-buffet car is the most comfortable proposition on wheels.
Right: The library-buffet car is the most comfortable vehicle on wheels.

Prospect. Slang when used to designate a person.

Slang: I think he is a good prospect.
Right: I think he is a possible customer.

Proven. An irregular form, and has enemies. Better "proved."

Providing. *Provided* is preferable.

Right: I will lend it, provided he agrees to take good care of it.

Put in. A colloquialism for *spend* or *occupy*.

Colloquial: I put in three hours in trying to memorize it.
Right: I spent three hours, etc.

Put in an appearance. A legal phrase. In ordinary writing, say *appear*.

Quality. Means *characteristic* or *trait;* as "The qualities of birch bark are lightness of color, thinness, and smoothness." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: The social qualities of college life are more in evidence in the winter. (See Rule 42.)
Right: The social activities of college life are more apparent in the winter.

Bad: He gives three qualities of a business man: Have something to say, say it, and stop talking.
Right: He gives three maxims for a business man: Have something to say, say it, and stop talking.

Quite. Means (*a*) *wholly;* as "The stream is now quite dried up"; or (*b*) *greatly, very;* as "We could see it quite distinctly." A colloquialism when used in the sense of *slightly, not very*.

Wrong: The room is quite large, but not large enough for any one to be comfortable in.
Right: The room is moderately large, but not large enough for any one to be comfortable in.

Quite a few. Colloquial for *a good many* or *a considerable number.*

Quite a little. Colloquial for *a considerable amount* or *a good deal.*

Raise (1). A provincialism when applied to human beings, in the sense of *rear, bring up.*

Raise (2). Often confounded with *rise.* Remember that *raise* is the causative of *rise; i.e., to raise* means *to cause to rise.* Therefore *raise* must always have an object. Remember the principal parts of each verb:

I rise	I rose	I have risen.
I raise	I raised	I have raised.

Real. Colloquial when used for *very.* (See Rule 27.)

Colloquial: It is real handsome.
Right: It is very handsome.

Reason. Do not complete such an expression as *the reason is* with (*a*) a *because* clause, (*b*) a *because of* phrase, (*c*) a *due to* phrase, or (*d*) an *on account of* phrase; complete it with a *that* clause. (See Rule 105.)

Illogical: The reason he was offended was because they were arrogant.
Illogical: The reason he was offended was because of their arrogance.
Illogical: The reason he was offended was due to their arrogance.
Illogical: The reason he was offended was on account of their arrogance.
Right: The reason he was offended was that they were arrogant.

Refer. See **Allude.**

Remember. The name of the thing remembered should not be preceded by *of.*

Wrong: I remember of meeting him.
Right: I remember meeting him.

Respectful, respectable, respective. "He was respectful to his elders"; "a respectable old woman"; "their respective positions" — *i.e.,* the positions belonging to each. "Yours respectfully" (not *respectively*) is proper in the complimentary close of a letter.

Reverend, Honorable. Should be preceded by *the,* and should never be followed immediately by a surname. (See Rules 358 and 367.)

Vulgar: Rev. Carter.
Vulgar: The Reverend Carter.
Right: The Reverend Mr. Carter.
Right: The Reverend Amos Carter.
Right: The Reverend Dr. Temple.

Rig. A provincialism for *carriage, buggy,* or *wagon.*

Right away, right off. Colloquial. Say "immediately," "at once," or "directly."

Run. A colloquial Americanism, in the sense of *manage* or *operate.*

Said. See **Say.**

Same (1). No longer in good use as a pronoun except in legal documents.

Wrong: We will repair the engine and ship same [or the same] to you next week.
Right: We will repair the engine and ship it to you next week.

Inelegant: The principal of the bonds was paid and the same canceled. [See Rule 110 *a.*]
Right: The principal of the bonds was paid and the bonds were canceled.

Same (2). *The same as* should not be used for *in the same way as* or *just as.*

Wrong: The draft is treated the same as a check is treated.
Right: The draft is treated just as a check is treated.

Say. Should not be used to mean *give orders,* with an infinitive as object.

Crude: The guard said to go back.
Right: The guard ordered us [or told us] to go back.

Scare. See **Frighten.**

Scarcely. See **Hardly.**

School. Should not be used for *college* or *university.*

Search. The phrase "in search for" is incorrect; say "in search of."

Right: The lion goes in search of sheep.

Seem. "Can't seem" is illogical and improper. Say "seem unable," or "do not seem able."

Seldom ever. Obsolete. Say "seldom" or "hardly ever."

Seldom or ever. A vulgarism. Say "seldom if ever."

Selection. Means *a thing selected;* as "He played a selection from Wagner." Should not be used where there is no idea of selecting.

Bad: Our class prophet then read an amusing selection, in which he satirized his classmates.
Right: Our class prophet then read an amusing composition [or skit, or squib, or piece], in which, etc.

Set (1). Often confounded with *sit.* Remember that *set* is the causative of *sit; i.e., to set* means *to cause to sit.* Remember the principal parts of each verb:

I sit	I sat	I have sat.
I set	I set	I have set.

The use of *set* without an object, as expressing mere rest, is a vulgarism; say "sit," "stand," "lie," "rest," or "is set."

Wrong: The pole sets firmly in the socket.
Right: The pole is set [or sits] firmly in the socket.

Wrong: The vase sets on the mantel.
Right: The vase stands [or rests] on the mantel.

Wrong: The boat sets lightly on the water.
Right: The boat lies [or rests] lightly on the water.

Setting hen, commonly used, is a questionable idiom.

Set (2). *Set* for *sets* (plural). See **Pair.**

Shan't. A colloquialism. A contraction for *shall not.*

Shape. Should not be used loosely to mean *manner* or *condition.*

Wrong: They executed the maneuvers in good shape.
Right: They executed the maneuvers in an expert manner.

Wrong: He is in good shape for the debate.
Right: He is in good condition (or thoroughly prepared] for the debate.

Should of. See **Of.**

Show (1). Colloquial for *play, opera, concert.*

Show (2). A colloquialism for *chance* or *promise.*

Colloquial: The freshman team had an excellent show of winning.
Right: The freshman team had an excellent chance of winning.

Show up. A colloquialism when used intransitively in the sense of *appear, attend, come,* or *be present;* and when used transitively in the sense of *show* or *expose.*

Sight of. "A sight of" is a vulgarism for *much, many, a great deal.*

Size. Never use *size* as an adjective; say "sized," or "of size."

Wrong: The different size dies are sorted.
Right: The different sized dies are sorted.

Wrong: Any size chain will do.
Right: A chain of any size will do.

Size up. A vulgarism for *estimate, judge, pass upon.*

Sleeper. See **Diner.**

Smoker. See **Diner.**

Snap. See **Vim.**

So (1). Should not be used for *so that.*

Wrong: They strapped it so it would hold.
Right: They strapped it so that it would hold.

So (2). Vague and weak when used alone to modify an adjective. (See Rule 114, note.)

Weak: During the first semester I was so lonely.
Right: During the first semester I was very lonely.

So (3). See **Too.**

Some. A provincialism, when used as an adverb. (See Rule 28.)

Wrong: I worked some last winter.
Right: I did some work last winter.

Wrong: I am some better today.
Right: I am somewhat better today.

Some place. See **Any place.**

Sort. See **Kind.**

Sort of. See **Kind of.**

Specie. Means *gold* or *silver money*. *Species*, meaning *kind*, has the same form in the singular and the plural.

Right: The first species is more valuable than the other two species are.

Start. "I started to school in 1908" is wrong, but "I started to school early that morning" is correct. "I started in school in 1908" is correct, though less desirable than "I began to attend school." In the expressions, "He started in to quarrel," and "He started up in business," the *in* and the *up* are incorrect, and should be omitted.

Stop. Means *to cease* or *to cease from motion*. A colloquialism when used in the sense of *stay*. Good British usage.

Right: Are you staying [not *stopping*] with friends?

Strata. A plural noun. See **Data.**

Such (1). When *such* is completed by a relative clause, the relative pronoun of the clause should not be *who*, *which*, or *that;* it should be ***as*** (see *as* in a dictionary).

Wrong: I will act under such rules that may be fixed.
Right: I will act under such rules as may be fixed.

Wrong: All such persons present who consent will rise.
Right: All such persons present as consent will rise.

Such (2). When *such* is completed by a result clause, this clause should be introduced, not by *so that*, but by *that* alone.

Wrong: There was such a mist so that we couldn't see.
Right: There was such a mist that we couldn't see.

Such (3). Avoid the vague and weak use of *such* without a result clause. (See Rule 114, note.)

Weak: We had such a good time.
Right: We had a very good time.

Superior, inferior. Should never be limited by a *than* clause, but always by a *to* phrase.

Wrong: It was superior from every point of view than the lathe previously used.
Right: It was superior from every point of view to the lathe previously used.

Suppose. See **Expect.**

Sure. Incorrect as an adverb.

Wrong: Will you go? Sure.
Right: Will you go? Surely [I will go].

Suspicion. Incorrectly used as a verb.

Wrong: I did not suspicion that he was coming.
Right: I did not suspect that he was coming.

Swell. A vulgarism when used as an adjective. (See Rule 28.)

Take. A colloquialism when used for *study.*

Colloquial: I took Spanish and chemistry.
Right: I studied Spanish and chemistry.

Take in (1). A vulgarism for *attend* or *go to.*

Take in (2). A vulgarism for *cheat* or *deceive.*

Take and. Sometimes used redundantly.

Wrong: It will stay if you take and put it on right.
Right: It will stay if you put it on right.

Take it. Should not be used in introducing an example.

Bad: Take it in Wisconsin, the old-fashioned method of logging is becoming extinct.
Right: In Wisconsin, for example, the old-fashioned method of logging is becoming extinct.

Take sick. A colloquialism for *become sick.*

Take stock in. See **Bank on.**

Team. Means a couple or group of animals or persons; as "a team of horses," " a team of athletes." A provincialism when applied to *one* animal or to a vehicle.

Wrong: Will you ride in my team?
Right: Will you ride in my buggy [or carriage, or wagon]?

Than, till, until. Often improperly used for *when,* as in the following *Wrong* sentences. (See Rule 105.)

Wrong: Scarcely had he mounted the wagon than the horse started.
Right: Scarcely had he mounted the wagon when the horse started.

Wrong: We had hardly got there and put things in order till Jenks came.
Right: We had hardly got there and put things in order when Jenks came.

That. Colloquial as an adverb. (Cf. **This,** and see Rule 28.)

Colloquial: He went only that far.
Right: He went only so far.

Colloquial: If it is that bad, we must retreat.
Right: If it is so bad [or so bad as that], we must retreat.

That there. See **This here.**

These here. See **This here.**

This. Colloquial as an adverb. (Cf. **That,** and see Rule 28.)

Colloquial: Having come this far . . .
Right: Having come thus far [or as far as this] . . .

Colloquial: The water hasn't ever before been this high.
Right: The water hasn't ever before been so high as this.

This here, these here, that there, those there. Gross vulgarisms. Say "this," "these," "that," or "those."

Those kind, those sort. See **Kind, sort.**

Those there. See **This here.**

Through. Inelegant when used as in the following sentence:

Wrong: He is through writing.
Right: He has finished writing; [or] He has done writing.

NOTE. — Never say "*is* finished" or "*is* done" in the sense above shown.

Till for *when.* See **Than.**

Too, so, very. No one of these words should immediately precede a past participle; say "too much," "so much," "very much."

Wrong: He is too exhausted to speak.
Right: He is too much exhausted to speak.

Wrong: He felt very insulted.
Right: He felt very much insulted.

Transpire. Means *to become known;* as "In spite of their efforts at concealment, the secret transpired." It is both affected and incorrect to use the word in the sense of *occur.*

Treat. Should be followed, when used to mean *discuss* or *speak of,* by *of,* not by *on* or *with.*

Wrong: The author treats on two subjects.
Right: The author treats of two subjects.

Trend. Means *direction;* as "The rivers of this land have a southern trend." Should not be used without regard to its proper meaning.

Bad: The egg business is only incidental to the general trend of the store.
Right: The egg business is only incidental to the general business of the store.

Try and. Colloquial for *try to.*

Colloquial: I shall try and get a good position.
Right: I shall try to get a good position.

But good British usage.

Ugly. Means *repulsive to the eye.* A provincialism when used to mean *vicious, malicious,* or *ill-tempered.*

Bad: The horse has an ugly temper.
Right: The horse has a vicious temper.

Bad: The conductor acted very ugly.
Right: The conductor acted very discourteously [or uncivilly].

Unique. Means the only one of its kind. Cannot be qualified, as "This is quite unique," or "fairly unique," or "the most unique."

United States. This name should usually be preceded by *the.* Do not write: We live in United States.

Until for *when.* See **Than.**

Up. Should not be appended to the verbs *cripple, divide, end, finish, open, polish, rest, scratch, settle.*

Wrong: He opened up the box and divided the money up among the men.
Right: He opened the box and divided the money among the men.

Up to date. A colloquialism when used as an adjective; better used as an adverbial modifier.

Colloquial: His house is up to date.
Preferable: His house is modern.
Right: He brought the history up to date.

Verbal and oral. *Oral* is used of the spoken word only. *Verbal,* meaning *in words,* is best restricted to the written word, but has become established, as in "a verbal contract," etc.

Very with past participles. See **Too.**

Vim, snap. Not in good literary use. Say "vigor," "energy," or "spirit."

Violin. Should not be used to mean *instruction in violin playing.*

Crude: He has just begun violin.
Right: He has just begun to take violin lessons.

Vocal, voice. Should not be used to mean *instruction in vocal music.* (See Rule 28.)

Crude: Are you keeping on with your vocal?
Crude: She is taking voice.

Voice. See **Vocal.**

Wait on. A vulgarism for *wait for.*

Wrong: If I'm not there, don't wait on me.
Right: If I'm not there, don't wait for me.

Want (1). Should not be limited by a clause as in the following sentence:

Wrong: I want you should be happy.
Right: I want you to be happy.

Want (2). "Want in," "want out," "want through," etc., are unauthorized localisms.

Vulgar: Do you want in?
Right: Do you want to come in?

Want (3). "I want for you to get some water" is a provincialism for "I want you to get some water."

Way (1). Unlicensed abbreviation for *away*.

Wrong: Way up the hill I saw a deer.
Right: Away [or *far*] up the hill I saw a deer.

Way (2). Should not be used adverbially without a preposition governing it.

Wrong: When he acts that way . . .
Right: When he acts in that way . . .

Wrong: How could a sane man act the way Beals did?
Right: How could a sane man act in the way in which Beals acted? [or, better] . . . act as Beals did?

Ways for *way*. See **Falls**.

Well. This word when used merely to mark a transition (*e.g.*, "You know MacDonald, of course. Well, last night as he stepped into his motor . . .") is a colloquialism, not proper in a formal context.

Where (1). Often misused for *that* as in the following sentence.

Wrong: I see in this morning's paper where Cronin has been caught.
Right: I see in this morning's paper that Cronin has been caught.

Where (2). Do not use "where to" in the sense of *whither;* omit the *to*.

Wrong: Where are you going to?
Right: Where are you going?

Which. Should not be used as a relative pronoun in referring to a person.

Wrong: The people which do that are rascals.
Right: The people that do that are rascals.

While. Means (*a*) *during the time in which*, (*b*) *though*, or (*c*) *whereas;* as (*a*) "I played while he sang"; (*b*) "While this may be true, it does not content me"; (*c*) "Yours is in good condition, while mine is quite worn out." Should not be used loosely without regard to its meaning.

Wrong: On one side was a grove, while on the other was a river.
Right: On one side was a grove, on the other a river.

Who. Should not, as a rule, be used in referring to animals; use *which*.

Whose. In modern usage, the possessive case of *who* only, though originally also of *which*, and sometimes so used.

> Doubtful: Soon we came to a swamp, on whose bank stood a hunter's cabin.
> Preferable: Soon we came to a swamp, on the bank of which stood a hunter's cabin.

Win out. See **Lose out.**

Wire. A colloquialism for *telegraph* or *telegram*. (See Rule 28.)

With. Often vaguely used in place of more exact connectives.

> Vague: With the men he has helping him, Parker seems certain to win.
> Better: Taking into consideration the men he has helping him, Parker seems certain to win.

Without. Should not be used as a conjunction for *except* or *unless*.

> Wrong: He will not do it without he has a good opportunity.
> Right: He will not do it unless he has a good opportunity.

Woods for *wood*. See **Falls.**

Would better, would best, would rather. Correct, but often used under a misapprehension. See **Had better.**

Would have. Often incorrectly used in *if* clauses instead of *had*.

> Wrong: If he would have stood by us, we might have won.
> Right: If he had stood by us, we might have won.

Would of. See **Of.**

Write-up. Newspaper word for *a report, a description, an account.*

You was. A vulgarism. *You*, though it may designate one person, is grammatically plural, and its verb must always be plural. Say "You were."

General Exercises on the Glossary

Accept and *except*

I. See *Except* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *accept* or *except:* 1. I would ——— the offer, ——— for my religious scruples. 2. He is the best pianist in Europe; I do not ——— even Liszt. 3. Most of the rebels were offered pardon and ———ed it; but the leaders were ———ed from the offer. 4. He burned all the household goods, not ———ing even the heirlooms. 5. Why did you ——— Charles from your invitation? He wouldn't have ———ed anyway.

Affect and *effect*

II. See *Affect* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *affect* or *effect:* 1. That statement is true, but it does not ——— the case. 2. The failure of the bank did not —— his equanimity. 3. The admonition of the dean had a good ———. 4. The generals ———ed a junction, but this action had no ——— on the enemy. 5. His brooding ———ed his health. 6. The utmost efforts of his physician could not ——— a cure.

Like

III. See *Like* in the Glossary. Complete the following sentences: 1. I wish I could run like ———. 2. If you find him engaged at his gymnastics, like ———. 3. She sat for a long time deep in thought, like ———.

Copy the following sentences, filling the blanks with *as, as if,* or *like:* 4. Don't act ——— a baby. 5. ——— all his predecessors, he was despotic. 6. We never quarrel now ——— we did when we were boys. 7. He was hanged, just ——— a common spy. 8. He was hanged, just ——— he had been a common spy. 9. He votes ——— his father did. 10. She sings ——— she had a cold. 11. He can run ——— a race-horse. 12. He can run ——— a race-horse runs. 13. He takes severe training ——— a man usually does when he is preparing for a prize fight. 14. He takes very severe training ——— a prize fighter. 15. She stood ——— a statue. 16. She stood ——— a statue might have stood. 17. He whimpered, ——— a spoiled child, about every little inconvenience. 18. He whined, ——— a spoiled child does, at every inconvenience. 19. ——— his father did, he saved his money. 20. ——— all his predecessors had been, Henry VIII was despotic. 21. We do not quarrel now ——— we were still unfriendly. 22. They quarrel constantly, ——— boys usually do. 23. They quarrel ——— cats and dogs. 24. He was hanged, ——— many another spy caught in such an enterprise. 25. He

was hanged ——— many another spy has been. 26. I vote, ——— my father, for the Conservative party. 27. I vote, ——— my father did, for the Conservatives. 28. She sings ——— a person afflicted with goitre. 29. She sings ——— a person with goitre might sing.

IV. The following sentences are ungrammatical. Rewrite them, correcting the errors. 1. She sings like she had a cold. 2. They executed him like he had been a common spy. 3. The sky looks like we should have rain. 4. He acts like he was the master of ceremonies. 5. The game isn't played like we used to play it. 6. He counted out the money dexterously, like a bank teller does. 7. These waves roar just like the ocean waves do. 8. She walks clumsily, like a duck waddles. 9. He turns his toes in, like an Indian does. 10. He grew white like he feared the boat would capsize. 11. I felt like I must scream. 12. It seemed like I was in a nightmare. 13. She cried out, like she had been struck. 14. Move your hand just like I move mine. 15. It stretches like a rubber band does.

V. See *Real* in the Glossary. Correct the following sentences: 1. You are real generous. 2. The room is real comfortable. 3. It was a real hard storm. 4. She writes a real pretty hand. 5. I felt real lonesome. 6. She told us a real sad story. 7. Hanksburg is a real pleasant town. *Real*

VI. Study *Due to* in the Glossary. Correct and rewrite the following sentences: 1. Hamlet treated her rudely due to his mental distraction. 2. Shop work is easy for me due to a natural talent for manual work. 3. Due to some one's carelessness the valve had been left open. 4. Due to bad weather the game is postponed. 5. He refused to buy due to the high price asked. 6. Due to his ignorance of French he misunderstood the letter. 7. I was put in the bow due to my light weight. 8. He had to sell his house due to need of ready money. 9. Due to his long exposure he became sick. 10. I kept warm and comfortable due to my fur coat. *Due to*

VII. Study *Falls, Ways, Woods* in the Glossary. Correct and rewrite the following incorrect sentences: 1. It is a long ways from here. 2. We carried our boat around a falls. 3. Is there a woods on your farm? 4. This falls is not very high. 5. Walk a little ways with us. 6. He lost himself in a woods. 7. The woods is on fire. *Falls, ways, and woods*

Write three sentences using the expression *a little way*, three using *a long way*, three using *a wood*, three using *the woods are*, three using *the falls were*.

Whose

VIII. Study *Whose* in the Glossary. Rewrite the following sentences: 1. I sat on the roof, whose slope was not very steep. 2. I selected a cloth whose texture was woven loosely. 3. I perceived a steeple on whose top revolved a gilded vane. 4. It was an antique table, whose legs bore the pineapple decoration. 5. He exhibited a painting in whose execution he had evidently expended much labor. 6. Get some of those matches whose ends are tipped with red. 7. A verb whose subject is a collective noun may properly be in the plural. 8. He lit a fire, whose heat was very comfortable. 9. A chain any of whose links are weak is a weak chain. 10. You sold me a book whose type is too small.

"Could of," "may of," etc.

IX. Study *Could of*, *Should of*, *Would of*, *May of*, *Must of*, *Might of* in the Glossary. Correct the following sentences: 1. You should of seen me. 2. I would of come if I could of spared the time. 3. He may of lost his way. 4. I might of lost mine, and then I should of lost this pleasure. 5. If I could of seen him, I would of told him. 6. She must of suspected treachery, or she would not of stayed away. 7. If he could of known, the outcome might of been different. 8. I would not of accepted the offer even if I could of named my own price.

"Would have" and "had have" for *had* in past perfect.

X. Study *Had have* and *Would have* in the Glossary. Correct the following sentences: 1. If we would have started back fifteen minutes later, we should probably have perished in the blizzard. 2. If he would have found the way, he would have gone. 3. If I would have known how it would end, I never would have begun. 4. If he would have been at his post, the accident would not have occurred. 5. If the weather would have been colder, the ice would now be safe. 6. If the boat would have tipped only a little more, it would have been swamped. 7. If she would have been a second later, she would have missed the train. 8. If the wind would have been north, the barn would certainly have caught fire. 9. If the bridge would have been properly built, it would not vibrate as it does. 10. If the old gentleman would have caught the boys, they would have repented sorely. 11. If the alarm clock would have been set, you would have waked in time.

XI. Study *You was* in the Glossary. Also write the following sentences, filling each blank with a word to indicate past tense: 1. ——— you satisfied? 2. You ——— generous. 3. You ——— content, ———n't you? 4. You ——— mistaken. 5. ——— you happy, or ———n't you? 6. You ——— never pleased. 7. ——— you sure? 8. ——— you as severe as you ——— justified in being? 9. ———n't you sterner than you ——— authorized to be? 10. You ——— treacherous, you ——— deceitful; therefore you ——— punished. *"You was"*

XII. Study *Different* in the Glossary. Correct and rewrite the following sentences: 1. They speak very differently than you speak. 2. Plumbing is entirely different than steam-fitting. 3. This machine is somewhat different than the one I bought. 4. To sail a brig is widely different than to sail a schooner. 5. He is a different man today than he was when you knew him. 6. His purpose is different than I thought it was. 7. My reward was very different than what I deserved. 8. They did it differently then than they do now. 9. Your machinery is different than what I use. 10. Conditions were radically different than what I expected. 11. His character was different, as a matter of fact, than what the historian says it was. 12. You need a different sort of manager than you now have. 13. The state of affairs in Nicaragua is no different than in Bolivia. 14. *The Witching Hour* deals with a different subject than Mr. Thomas, the author, has used hitherto. *Different*

XIII. Study *Such* (1) in the Glossary. Write ten sentences containing severally the following expressions: *all such men as hold this belief, such tools as are necessary, such books as I find interesting, such men as seem to be in earnest, such members as desire to dance, all such citizens as love their country, such as are in need of money, for such as keep His covenant, with such fruits as the season afforded, such as prefer horses to motors, such influence as he may have.* *Such . . . as*

XIV. Study *Such* (2) in the Glossary. Complete each of the following sentences with a *that* clause: 1. He is such a coward . . . 2. There was such a drought . . . 3. He has such skill . . . 4. There is such a crowd . . . 5. We made such a protest . . . 6. Such a tempest arose . . . 7. He came with such an army . . . 8. She exercised such tact . . . 9. The lawyer displayed such eloquence . . . *Such . . . that*

Superior and *inferior*

XV. Study *Superior, Inferior* in the Glossary. Complete the following sentences, beginning each added member with a *to* phrase: 1. This method is superior, in the opinion of all who have used it, . . . 2. His style is inferior, so the critics all agree, . . . 3. The team was inferior, both in weight and in experience, . . . 4. This year's class play will be inferior, unless I am much mistaken, . . . 5. The street-car service here is inferior, however you may regard it, . . . 6. The present system is superior, so far as one can judge, . . . 7. His present situation is superior, so far as salary is concerned, . . .

Prefer and *preferable*

XVI. Study *Prefer* in the Glossary. The "prefer . . . than" fault can be corrected by the substitution of *prefer . . . to* or by the substitution of *prefer . . . rather than.*

Right: I prefer building to leasing.
Right: I prefer to build rather than to lease.

Rewrite each of the following sentences twice, correcting in the two ways shown above: 1. I prefer to miss the train than to run for it. 2. Do you prefer to be expelled than to apologize? 3. He preferred to write a letter than to explain in person. 4. I prefer to enter business at once than to go to college. 5. I should much prefer to pay the money than to dispute with you. 6. They prefer to take their ease than to work. 7. She prefers to go to a party than to study her lessons. 8. I preferred to freeze my nose than to be suffocated by the bad air. 9. I prefer to risk the journey alone than to have your company. 10. He preferred to kill the horse than to let it suffer.

No sooner . . . than

XVII. Study *Than, Till, Until* in the Glossary. Also notice this: "No sooner . . . when" is bad English; say *no sooner . . . than.*

Wrong: No sooner had we arrived when the play began.
Right: No sooner had we arrived than the play began.
[That is, We had arrived *no sooner than* the play began.]
But note:
Right: Hardly had we arrived when the play began.

Hardly . . . when

Complete the following sentences, using a *when* clause or a *than* clause as the sense requires: 1. No sooner did the boat touch the wharf . . . 2. The clock had scarcely finished striking . . . 3. Hardly had I seated myself . . . 4. No sooner had Bassanio departed . . . 5. The policeman had no sooner turned his back . . . 6. Our hero had hardly opened his eyes . . . 7. She no sooner reached the bridge . . . 8. Scarcely had the buck emerged from

the brush . . . 9. I had hardly laid down the pen . . . 10. No sooner did the King show signs of yielding . . . 11. I no sooner overcome one obstacle . . .

Too and *very* with participles

XVIII. Study *Too, Very* in the Glossary. The following sentences are unidiomatic. Rewrite them, correcting each by inserting an adverb (*much, greatly, seriously, gravely, sadly, happily, deeply,* or any other appropriate adverb) after the " too " or the " very." 1. He seemed very moved by the appeal. 2. I am very delighted to hear it. 3. They are too offended to forgive us. 4. He is too injured to walk. 5. I am very grieved by this news. 6. She lay down again, feeling very relieved. 7. We are too involved in this affair to withdraw. 8. You need not feel too discouraged. 9. I don't feel very elated. 10. He can't judge fairly; he is too misled by his prejudices.

Miscellaneous Exercises on the Glossary

Correct any errors in diction that you may find in the following sentences. The standard should be the diction of written discourse.

1. Do you know the lay of the land? 2. He is laying for a chance to get even. 3. You should not disturb a setting hen. 4. He don't like the set of the coat on the shoulders. 5. If you organize your work, you can get it done all the faster. 6. I can't seem to forget that movie. It sure was a grand one. 7. He is the kind of a fellow who always enthuses about everything. 8. I guess I'll never get to go places. 9. The bunch can't hardly ever get together any more, due to our all being in business now. 10. They aren't putting the blame on the right party.

11. I am saving up money enough so that I won't have to work my senior year. 12. If he would have done as the doctor said, he might have pulled through. 13. You can not make him go without he wants to. 14. I started to work when I was eight years old. 15. We could of taken in a show on the way home. 16. She is quite a little better. 17. It don't seem like it's ever going to clear up. 18. I should liked to have seen her. 19. We shall likely go 20. Less accidents have occurred this year than last.

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21. I doubt if he is right. 22. You will find her in back of the house. 23. That is not along my line. 24. If my father had have been there, he would never have consented. 25. You have nowhere near the right amount. 26. No one was there but her brother and myself. 27. You came nearly getting drowned. 28. Sometimes she likes to go and then other times she doesn't. 29. He is the strangest individual that I have ever known. 30. She spent a whole lot of time on that get-up.

31. The whole family had mean dispositions and were always quarreling with each other. 32. You couldn't faze her. 33. That much is over with. 34. I had hardly got the door shut than they were at me with questions. 35. This cottage was superior in many ways than the one we had last year. 36. Take it on the home farm, we have never had a complete crop failure. 37. I worked some in the laboratory last night. 38. She took vocal from him. 39. He was very disappointed not to go. 40. She answered me that queer way.

41. Go a ways with me. 42. With all that your father has done for you, you should be willing to help him now. 43. I see where I shall have trouble. 44. Where did he go to? 45. I am real glad to meet you. 46. He was raised on the farm. 47. She raised up and told us what she thought. 48. I've put in a good day's work. 49. He is my best prospect. 50. No one else but her would do.

51. I feel badly about your being left out. 52. I will do the balance of the work tomorrow. 53. I expect considerable lost in the crash. 54. We have company for supper. 55. I have no doubt but what he will answer your letter. 56. My work is much harder this year. 57. He was not overly pleased with the prospect. 58. Your parents always want for you to do your best. 59. His family located in Iowa. 60. He passed most all of us in the course.

61. It is perfectly lovely of you to ask me. 62. He loaned money to students without interest. 63. I will kindly request you to mind your own business. 64. I think that he is kind of foolish. 65. Bring your scissors, needles, and etc. 66. The course ends with the fifth century A.D. 67. After having waited for her for several hours, I went home. 68. He is an all-around athlete. 69. We have supper at about six o'clock.

APPENDIX B

A Grammatical Vocabulary explaining Grammatical and Other Technical Terms used in this Book

Absolute. A substantive with a modifier (usually a participle) attached to a predication but having no syntactic relation to any noun or verb in the predication is called an **absolute substantive.** An absolute substantive and its modifier are together called an **absolute phrase.** The italicized part of the following sentence is an absolute phrase: "*The wind being favorable,* they embarked." For other examples see Rule 55.

Active voice. See **Voice.**

Adjective. A word used to modify or limit the meaning of a substantive; *e.g., black, human, old, beautiful, metallic, dry.*

Adjective clause. A clause used to modify a substantive in the manner of an adjective; *e.g.,* "The rain *that fell yesterday* was a blessing" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "rain"); "The house *where he used to live* is vacant" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "house"); "There was once a city *on the outskirts of which lay a pestilential morass*" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "city"). Adjective clauses are often called **relative clauses.**

Adjunct. Modifiers and predicate substantives or predicate adjectives have the general name of adjuncts. A modifier is said to be an adjunct of the sentence-member it modifies; a predicate substantive or adjective is said to be an adjunct of the verb it completes.

Adverb. A word used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; *e.g., slowly, politely, accurately, very, too, then, up, down, out.*

Adverbial clause. A clause used to modify an adjective, an adverb, or a verb; *e.g.,* "He is greater *than his father was*" (the italicized clause modifies the adjective "greater"); "He walked faster *than I did*" (the italicized clause modifies the adverb "faster"); "I will come if my salary is paid when it is due" (the clause "if . . . paid" modifies the verb "will come"; the clause "when . . . due" modifies the verb "is paid").

Adverbial objective. A substantive used to limit adverbially an adjective, an adverb, or a verb; *e.g.,* "It is worth *ten cents*" ("ten

cents" limits the adjective "worth"); "He walked *two miles* farther" ("two miles" limits the adverb "farther"); "He walked *two miles*" ("two miles" limits "walked" adverbially).

Antecedent. The word, as used in this book, means the substantive to which any pronoun refers. In the sentence, "He who runs may read," "he" is the antecedent of "who." In the sentence "He picked up a stone and threw it," "stone" is the antecedent of "it."

Anticlimax. See **Climax.**

Appositive. A substantive attached to another substantive and denoting the same person or thing by a different name is called an appositive, or is said to be **in apposition** with the substantive modified. In the sentence "George the king is enjoying his favorite sport — yachting," "king" is in apposition with "George," and "yachting" is in apposition with "sport."

Article. The word *the* is called the **definite article;** the word *a* or *an* is called the **indefinite article.**

Auxiliary. The verbs *be, have, do, shall, will, may, can, must,* and *ought,* with their inflectional forms (*e.g., was, am, did, should, might, could,* etc.) when they assist in forming the voices, modes, and tenses of other verbs, are called auxiliaries. The italicized words following are auxiliaries: "*Have* you gone?" "I *did* not see," "He *has* not *been* heard," "I *should be* grieved if it *was* broken."

Cardinal number. The words *one, two, three,* and the corresponding words for other numbers are **cardinal numbers;** the words *first, second, third,* etc., are **ordinal numbers.**

Case. The different forms that a substantive takes when it stands in different syntactic relations are called cases. The subject of a finite verb is in the **nominative case.** A substantive that modifies another substantive by indicating a possessor is in the **possessive (genitive) case.** The object of a verb or a preposition is in the **objective (accusative) case.** The three cases of typical nouns and of the principal pronouns that are inflected are shown in the tables of declension under **Substantive.** It will be observed that in the nouns the nominative and objective (accusative) cases are identical, but that in the pronouns they are, with the exception of the nominative and objective (accusative) singular of *it,* distinct.

Causal conjunction. A conjunction that introduces a statement of cause or reason; *e.g., for* (coördinating); *because* and *since* (subordinating).

Clause. A clause is a group of words that is part of a sentence and contains a subject and a predicate. In the sentence (*a*) "When I awake, I am still with thee," the two groups of words separated by the comma are clauses. A subordinate clause is used like a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. All other clauses, which make independent assertions, are **principal clauses.** The italicized groups of words in the following sentences are principal clauses: (*b*) "If the rope breaks, *he is lost.*" (*c*) "*The bell sounded,* and *every one rose.*" Clauses that play the same part in a sentence, whether they are alike principal or alike subordinate, are called **coördinate clauses.** See, *e.g.*, the two principal clauses in sentence *c*, above; and the two subordinate clauses in the following sentence: (*d*) "*Though I am tired,* and *though my shoes pinch,* I am going on."

Climax. A series of assertions or coördinate sentence-elements so arranged that each one is stronger or more impressive than the preceding one. See, *e.g.*, the sentences marked *Improved* under Rule 89. A series of assertions or sentence-elements decreasing in strength or impressiveness is an **anticlimax.** See, *e.g.*, the sentences marked *Weak* under Rule 140.

Common noun. A noun used to designate any member of a class; *e.g.*, *man, ruler, country, city, street, building.* A noun used to distinguish an individual member of a class from other members is a **proper noun**; *e.g.*, *John, Anderson, Caesar, Germany, Boston, Broadway, Acropolis.* A **proper name** is an appellation of any kind (including proper nouns) used to distinguish an individual person or thing; *e.g.*, *Henry the Second* (or *Henry II.*), *Revolutionary War, First National Bank, Democratic Party, Second Presbyterian Church, Domesday Book, Forty-first Street, Ohio River, Niagara Falls, Edgar County, Calegonian Literary Society, Sumner High School, Columbia College, Morningside Park.*

Comparative. See **Comparison.**

Comparison. An adjective or an adverb is in the positive degree when it simply designates a quality or manner without indicating the degree in which that quality or manner is present; this form is, with a few exceptions, the shortest form the word can have, — *e.g., sweet, strong, fast, hard.* An adjective or an adverb is in the **comparative degree** (1) when it is in the form which indicates that the quality or manner is present in a greater measure relatively to some standard. It is commonly formed by adding *er* to the positive or combining it with *more.* The **superlative degree** is regularly formed by adding *est* to the positive or combining it with *most.* The formation of the three degrees of an adjective or an adverb is called **comparison.**

Complex sentence. A sentence that contains a dependent clause. See, *e.g.*, sentences *a*, *b*, and *d* under **Clause.**

Compound sentence. Two or more principal clauses connected by coördinating conjunctions; or two or more principal clauses not connected by conjunctions, but written with such punctuation and capitalization, or spoken with such slight pauses between them, as will indicate that they are combined. See, *e.g.*, sentence *c* under **Clause,** and the following sentences: (*a*) "I came, I saw, I conquered." (*b*) "Must I obey you? must I crouch before you?"

Conditional. See **Mode.**

Conjunction. A word used to connect one word with another or one group with another; *e.g.*, *and, if, for.* Conjunctions may be distinguished from prepositions (*q.v.*) by the following fact: Any conjunction can be used to connect one predication with another (*e.g.*, "*I opened the door* when *he rapped*") — an office which a preposition cannot perform; one of the two elements connected by a preposition must always be a substantive (*e.g.*, "*He fell* into *the cold water*"). — **Coördinating conjunctions** are those which, when they join two predications, make those predications of equal rank — neither dependent on the other; *e.g.*, "*I called* and *they came.*" The principal coördinating conjunctions are the **simple conjunctions,** *and, but, or, nor, neither,* and *for;* the correlative conjunctions, *both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor;* and the **conjunctive adverbs,** *so, also, therefore, hence, however, nevertheless, moreover, accordingly, besides, thus, then, still,* and *yet.* — **Subordinating conjunctions** are those which, when they join two predications, make one of those predications subordinate to the other; *e.g.*, "*They came* when *I called.*" The principal subordinating conjunctions are *if, though, whether, lest, unless, than, as, that because, since, when, while, after, whereas, provided.*

Conjunctive adverbs. Words that are used sometimes as adverbs and sometimes as conjunctives. See **Conjunction.**

Consonant. See **Vowel.**

Construction. The grammatical office performed by any word in a given sentence is called the construction of that word. For example, in the sentence "He walks fast," the construction of "he" is that of subject of "walks"; the construction of "walks" is that of predicate of "he"; the construction of "fast" is that of adverbial modifier of "walks."

Coördinate. Sentence-elements that are in the same construction within a sentence are coördinate. In the sentence "He and she talked long and earnestly and at last agreed," "he" and "she," "talked" and "agreed," "long" and "earnestly" are coördinate.

Coördinate clause. See **Clause.**

Coördinating conjunction. See **Conjunction.**

Copula. The verb *to be*, or any of its forms.

Correlative conjunctions. Conjunctions that are used in pairs; *e.g.*, *both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, whether . . . or.*

Declension. See **Inflection.**

Demonstrative adjectives. The words *this* and *these, that* and *those*, when they are used as adjectives; *e.g.*, "this man," "those men."

Demonstrative pronouns. The words *this* and *these, that* and *those* when they are used as substantives; *e.g.*, "That is not true," "What is this?"

Dependent clause. See **Clause.**

Direct address. Discourse in the second person (see **Person**); *e.g.*, "Sir, I salute you." The expression **a substantive used in direct address** means a substantive that indicates to whom the discourse is addressed; *e.g.*, "Sir" in the foregoing example.

Direct question. See **Direct quotation.**

Direct quotation (often called direct discourse). Quotation of discourse exactly as it was spoken or written; *e.g.*, *He said, "I will help."* Statement of the substance of quoted discourse without the use of the exact words is **indirect quotation** (or indirect discourse), *e.g.*, *He said that he would help.* A question indirectly quoted is called an **indirect question**; *e.g.*, *He asked whether I would help.* A question directly quoted, or not quoted but directly asked, is a **direct question**; *e.g.*, *Will you help?*

Factitive adjective. An adjective, when it denotes a quality or state produced by the action of a verb, is called a factitive adjective; *e.g.*, "It will make you *strong*."

Figure of speech. Certain devices of expression that may be used for making discourse interesting, effective, or beautiful are called figures of speech; others are not included under this term.

Which of them are included cannot be stated briefly, for the application of the term is arbitrary, being based simply on custom and not on any common peculiarity of the devices included. Of the devices mentioned in this book, the following are figures of speech: simile, metaphor, climax, irony (see these words in this vocabulary), and the use of the historical present (technically called vision).

Finite. See **Mode.**

Future tense. See **Tense.**

Future perfect tense. See **Tense.**

Gerund. A verb-form ending in *ing* is called a gerund when it is used as a noun. When such a form is used as an adjective, it is called a **participle.** In the sentence, " Coming close, he whispered," " coming " is used as an adjective modifying " he " and is therefore a participle. In the sentence " His coming was expected," " coming " is used as a noun, the subject of " was expected," and is therefore a gerund. A gerund may fulfill the principal offices of a noun. It may be the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, " Fishing is tiresome "); the object of a verb (*e.g.*, " I hate fishing "); the object of a preposition (*e.g.*, " I have an aversion to fishing "); a predicate noun (*e.g.*, " What I most detest is fishing "); an appositive (*e.g.*, " That detestable amusement, fishing, I cannot endure "); or an absolute noun (*e.g.*, " Fishing being my aversion, let us not fish ").

Gerund phrase. See **Phrase.**

Govern. The relation between a verb and its object may be stated either by saying that the substantive is the object of the verb, or by saying that the verb governs the substantive. Likewise the relation between a preposition and its object may be stated by saying that the preposition governs the substantive. A clause, whether principal or subordinate, on which another clause depends, is said to govern the latter clause. In the sentence " She wept when she saw the injury that had been done," the clause " she wept " governs the clause " when she saw the injury," and the latter clause governs the clause " that had been done."

Grammar. The science that deals with (1) the classification of words with reference to the functions they perform in discourse (see **Parts of speech**); (2) the inflection of words (see **Inflection**); and (3) the relations that words bear to one another in discourse (see **Syntax**). Grammar is distinguished from **rhetoric** by the following fact: The statements comprising the science of gram-

mar tell us how words *may* be inflected, used singly and combined. The statements comprising the science of rhetoric tell us how words *should* be used and combined in order to make discourse clear and effective.

Indefinite pronoun. The words *each, either, neither, some, any, many, few, all, both, one, none, aught, naught, somebody, something, somewhat, anybody, anything, everybody, everything, nobody,* and *nothing,* when they are used as substantives, are called indefinite pronouns.

Indicative. The set of inflectional forms and of combinations with auxiliary verbs that a speaker uses when he conceives the action of a verb as a fact, is not the same as the set he uses when he conceives the action as doubtful. Compare, for example, the sentences " He *is* a coward " and " If he *be* a coward, he should be dismissed." The former set is called the **indicative mode** of a verb; the latter the **subjunctive mode.** The indicative and subjunctive forms of a typical verb are shown on pages 355 ff.

Indirect question. See **Direct quotation.**

Indirect quotation. See **Direct quotation.**

Infinitive. That inflectional form of a verb which may be combined with *to* (as in the sentences " To err is human," " I wish to go," " He refused to move," " It is impossible to see ") is called an infinitive when it is used in one of the following ways: (1) in combination with *to,* as illustrated above; (2) in combination with an auxiliary verb (*e.g.,* " I will go," " I can see "); (3) as the predicate of a substantive, the whole predication being the object of another verb (*e.g.,* " It made me gasp," " I saw him smile "); (4) in one of the constructions of a substantive (*e.g.,* " Do you dare go in? " in which " go " is the object of " dare "). The word *to,* when it is combined with an infinitive, is not a preposition; it is merely a sort of prefix, serving no grammatical purpose except to show that the verb-form following is an infinitive. For this reason it is called the **sign of the infinitive** or the **infinitive-sign.** The infinitive-sign is not a necessary part of the infinitive. In the sentences " I cannot see," " I dare go," " Will you come? " " I heard the clock strike," " You had better speak," the words " see," " go," " come," " strike," and " speak " are infinitives, though the infinitive-sign does not accompany them. In mentioning an infinitive, the infinitive sign may with equal correctness be put before the infinitive or be omitted; thus we may say either " The verbs *to stand* and *to sit* are intransitive," or " The verbs *stand* and *sit* are intransitive." — The use of infinitives in various substantive con-

structions is an important matter for the student to understand. An infinitive may be used (1) as the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "To read history is instructive"); (2) as the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I like to read history"); (3) as a predicate noun (*e.g.*, "An instructive occupation is to read history"); (4) as an appositive (*e.g.*, "It is instructive to read history"); (5) as an absolute noun (*e.g.*, "To read history being so instructive, let us read it"); (6) as an adverbial noun (*e.g.*, "History is instructive to read").

Infinitive-sign. See **Infinitive.**

Inflection. Change in the form of a word to show variation of meaning (as with inflections of number, comparison, and tense), or to show the relation of a word to another word (as with the inflections of case and person). The inflection of substantives is called **declension,** that of adjectives and adverbs **comparison** (*q.v.*), and that of verbs **conjugation.** The various forms that a word receives in inflection are its **inflectional forms;** *e.g.*, *love, lovest, loveth, loved, lovedst,* and *loving* are the inflectional forms of the verb *to love; man, man's, men, men's,* are the inflectional forms of the noun *man;* see also the tables under **Substantive** and opposite **Verb.**

Intensive. The pronouns *myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, themselves,* and *oneself,* when they are used in apposition, are called intensives (*e.g.*, "I myself will do it," "He saw the bishop himself"). When they are used as the object of a verb and designate the same person or thing as the subject of that verb, they are called **reflexives** (*e.g.*, "I hurt myself," "They benefit themselves").

Interjection. A word that expresses emotion and that has no syntactic relations with other words; *e.g., oh, alas, ha, ah, hello, hurrah, huzza.*

Interrogative pronoun. The words *who, what, which,* and *whether* (archaic), when they are used as substantives and in an interrogative sense (*e.g.*, "Who are you?" "What do you want?" "Which do you choose?" "Whether of the twain is justified?"), are called interrogative pronouns. *What* and *which,* when they are used as adjectives and in an interrogative sense (*e.g.*, "What song did you sing?" "Which book do you choose?"), are called **interrogative adjectives.**

Intransitive. See **Transitive.**

Irony. The suggestion of a thought or fact by an expression which, if taken literally, would convey the opposite of what is meant.

"You are very kind," spoken in a certain tone to a bully who has been abusing the speaker, is irony. In the expression "arsenic, corrosive sublimate, prussic acid, and other *mild* and *harmless* drugs" the italicized words are ironical. — **Sarcasm,** as applied to discourse, is contemptuous, taunting, or intentionally irritating discourse. Sarcasm may or may not be ironical, and irony may or may not be sarcastic.

Metaphor. The denoting of a person or thing or the stating of a thought or fact by the use of an expression which, if taken literally, would designate not what is meant but something resembling it, is called metaphor, or is said to be metaphorical; *e.g.*, (*a*) "These words cut me to the heart." A single word or expression used metaphorically is said to be a metaphor; *e.g.*, the word *cut* in example *a* and the italicized words in the following sentences are metaphors: (*b*) "He *poured* out a *flood* of eloquence." (*c*) "That is a *knotty* problem." — An explicit statement that a person or thing or fact is like another is a **simile**; *e.g.*, (*d*) "The enemy are fleeing like frightened rabbits." — Metaphor and simile both show resemblance — metaphor by suggestion or implication, simile by explicit statement (usually by the use of *like*, *as*, *seem*, or some other such word). For this reason any metaphor may be changed to a simile, and *vice versa*. The metaphors in *a*, *b*, and *c*, above may be changed to similes thus: (*a*) "On hearing these words, I felt as if I had been cut to the heart." (*b*) "Eloquence seemed to pour like a flood from his lips." (*c*) "It is as difficult to deal with that problem as it is to saw a knotty log." And the simile in example *d* may be changed to a metaphor thus: (*d*) "The enemy are fleeing — the frightened rabbits!"

Mode. A mode of a verb is that set of inflectional forms and verb phrases which a speaker uses to represent the action of the verb in a certain mode (*i.e.*, manner). The set which he uses to represent the action as a fact is the **indicative mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as doubtful, the **subjunctive mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as permitted or possible, the **potential mode**; that which he uses in giving a command, the **imperative mode**; that which he uses when he employs the verb as a substantive, the **infinitive mode** (of the forms constituting this mode some are called **infinitives** and others **gerunds**); that which he uses when he employs the verb as an adjective, the **participial mode** (the forms constituting this mode are called **participles**). The indicative, subjunctive, conditional, potential, obligative, and imperative modes are called **finite (predicative) modes**; the others, **non-finite (non-predicative)**

modes. (See also **Indicative, Infinitive, Gerund,** and **Participle.**) The different modes of a typical verb are shown on pages 355 ff.[1]

Modifier. See **Modify.**

Modify. A word which, by being combined in discourse with another word or expression, is made to mean something different from what it would mean if it stood alone, is said to be modified by that other word or expression. Thus, the meaning of the sentence "I dislike oranges" is changed if we insert *sour*, so that the sentence reads "I dislike sour oranges"; it is changed because "sour oranges" means something different from "oranges"; "sour" is therefore said to modify (*i.e.*, change) "oranges." Likewise "many men" and "few men" mean something different from "men"; "many" and "few" modify "men." "Call softly" means something different from "call"; "softly" modifies "call." "I hate women who use slang" means something different from "I hate women"; "who use slang" modifies "women." A word or expression which thus changes the meaning of another word is called a **modifier.** — The modifiers of substantives are adjectives (including participles), adjective-phrases, adjective clauses, appositives, and substantives in the possessive case. The modifiers of adjectives, verbs and adverbs are adverbs, adverb-phrases, adverbial clauses, and adverbial objectives. Vocatives (nominatives of address) and absolute phrases may be considered modifiers of predications.

Monosyllabic. See **Monosyllable.**

Monosyllable. A word of one syllable (*e.g.*, *word, one, stop, strength*) is said to be a monosyllable, or to be monosyllabic.

Nominative. See **Case.**

Noun. See **Substantive.**

Number. When a substantive is in an inflectional form which shows that one person or thing is designated (*e.g.*, *boy, boy's*), it is said to be in the **singular number;** when in an inflectional form which shows that more than one person or thing are designated (*e.g.*,

[1] The classification of certain verb-phrases as the conditional mode and the obligative mode has been omitted here and in the paradigm on pp. 355 ff., on philological grounds. The considerations on which these modes are still retained in some grammatical treatises are stated in Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar*, pp. 120 ff., particularly 126; and MacEwan's *The Essentials of the English Sentence*, p. 53. The *Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature* recognizes only three modes (moods), the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

boys, boys') it is said to be in the **plural number.** The forms constituting the singular and plural numbers of typical nouns and of the principal inflected pronouns are shown in the tables under **Substantive.** When a verb is in an inflectional form properly used with a singular subject (*e.g., am, was, takes, goest*), the verb is said to be in the singular number; when in a form properly used with a plural subject (*e.g., are, were, take, go*), it is said to be in the plural number.

Object. A substantive used in connection with a verb and designating the person or thing upon whom or which the action of the verb is represented as taking effect is called the object of the verb. In the following sentences the italicized words are the objects of the respective verbs: "I built a *house*," "I wrote a *letter*," "*Whom* do you wish?" A substantive that designates the person or thing directly affected by the action of a verb (as the objects in the foregoing examples do) is called a **direct object;** one that designates the person or thing indirectly affected is called an **indirect object (dative);** *e.g.*, the italicized words in the sentences following: "I built my *wife* a house," "I wrote *him* a letter." — Regarding the object of a preposition, see **Preposition.**

Objective (accusative). See **Case.**

Part of speech. A part of speech is a body of words all of which perform the same function in discourse. The parts of speech generally recognized by grammarians, as the classes into which all words in the English language are divided, are eight in number; *viz.*, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Participle. The word *participle* as ordinarily used means a verb-form like *moving* or *moved*, when that form is used with the value of an adjective, as in "We are moving today," "The piano has been moved." For further information see **Gerund, Mode,** and **Verb.**

Passive. See **Voice.**

Past tense. See **Tense.**

Past perfect. See **Tense.**

Perfect. See **Tense.**

Person. The words *I* (with its inflectional forms — *me, we,* etc.; see the tables under **Substantive**), *myself, ourselves,* and the relative *who,* when its antecedent is one of the foregoing words, are called **pronouns of the first person.** The words *thou* (with its inflectional

forms — *thee, you,* etc.; see **Substantive**), *thyself, yourself, yourselves,* and the relative *who,* when its antecedent is one of the foregoing words, are called **pronouns of the second person.** The relative *who,* when used otherwise than as above mentioned, all other pronouns than those above mentioned, and all nouns, are said to belong to the **third person.** — A verb-form or verb-phrase that may correctly be used with a subject in the first person is said to belong to the **first person of the verb** (*e.g., am, are bound*); one that may correctly be used with a subject in the second person is said to belong to the **second person of the verb** (*e.g., art, hast gone*); one that may correctly be used with a subject in the third person is said to belong to the **third person of the verb** (*e.g., is, does, has gone*). (See pages 355 ff.) — Discourse is said to be **in the first person** when the speaker designates himself by pronouns of the first person (*e.g.,* the Twenty-third Psalm); **in the second person** when the speaker addresses some person or thing, using pronouns of the second person (*e.g.,* the Lord's Prayer); **in the third person** when neither pronouns of the first person nor pronouns of the second person are used (*e.g.,* the first three letters under Rule 439).

Personal pronouns. The words *I, thou, he, she,* and *it,* together with their inflectional forms (see the tables under **Substantive**), are called personal pronouns.

Phrase. The term *phrase* is often used to mean any short group of words; as "the slang phrase 'That's hard lines.'" But as the term is used in grammar, a phrase is a group of words not constituting or containing a predication. A **verb-phrase** is a combination of a principal verb and one or more auxiliaries that is analogous to a single inflectional form (*e.g., has gone, shall have done*). A **preposition-phrase** is a combination of words analogous to a single preposition (*e.g., in regard to, as for*). An **adjective-phrase** is a phrase used to modify a substantive (*e.g.,* "A machine *of great value*"). An **adverb-phrase** is a phrase used analogously to an adverb (*e.g.,* "He fell *into the water*"). Any phrase consisting of a preposition and its object is a **prepositional phrase** (a term not to be confused with *preposition-phrase*); *e.g.,* the adjective- and adverb-phrases above quoted are prepositional phrases. A **participial phrase** is a phrase consisting of a participle and its adjuncts (*e.g.,* "*Looking to the north,* I saw the lake"). A **gerund-phrase** is a prepositional phrase in which the preposition governs a gerund (*e.g., in talking, instead of shooting*). Concerning **absolute phrases,** see **Absolute.**

Plural. See **Number.**

Possessive adjective. The words *my, mine, our, ours, thy, thine, your, yours, his, her, hers, its, their, theirs,* and *whose* are called possessive adjectives, or possessives, as well as inflectional forms of the personal pronouns.

Possessive (genitive) case. See **Case.**

Predicate. See **Subject.**

Predicate adjective. See **Predicate substantive.**

Predicate complement. See **Predicate substantive.**

Predicate substantive. A substantive designating what a verb asserts a person or thing to be is a predicate substantive (*e.g.,* "He is a *carpenter,*" "These are *strawberries*"). An adjective designating a quality which a verb asserts belongs to a person or thing is a **predicate adjective** (*e.g.,* "He is *skillful,*" "These berries are *sweet*"). A predicate substantive, or a predicate adjective, or a phrase or clause used as the one or the other, is said to be the **predicate complement** of the verb it completes.

Predication. Any group of words consisting of a single subject and predicate, whether a simple sentence or a clause.

Preposition. A word used to show the relation of a substantive to another word; *e.g., in, on, into, toward, from, for, against, of, between, with, without, within, before, behind, under, over, above, among, at, by, around, about, through, throughout, beyond, across, along, beside.* A preposition always requires to complete its meaning a substantive, with which it combines into what is felt to be a unit of expression; *e.g.,* "in the water," "into the house," "among the leaves," "behind the house." This fact distinguishes prepositions from adverbs, which do not require a substantive to complete them; *e.g.,* "Go out," "Come in," "Please walk before." (*In, before, on, for, but, across,* and many other English words belong each one to several parts of *speech;* there is a preposition *across* and an adverb *across,* a preposition *for* and a conjunction *for,* etc.) For the distinction between prepositions and conjunctions, see **Conjunction.** The substantive combined with a preposition in the manner illustrated above is called the **object of the preposition.**

Preposition-phrase. See **Phrase.**

Present. See **Tense.**

Principal clause. See **Clause.**

Principal parts. The principal parts of any verb are (1) the present infinitive, (2) the past first singular, and (3) the past participle (see **Verb**); *e.g., flee, fled, fled; choose, chose, chosen; love, loved, loved; set, set, set.*

Principal verb. A verb not used as an auxiliary, including the auxiliaries themselves when they are used independently (*e.g.*, "I *have* a boat," "he *did* wonders").

Pronoun. See **Substantive.**

Proper name. See **Common noun.**

Proper noun. See **Common noun.**

Relative adjectives. See **Relative pronoun.**

Relative clause. See **Adjective clause.**

Relative pronoun. The words *that, who, what, which, whoever, whatever,* and *whichever,* when they are used as substantives and in such a way that the clauses in which they stand are made adjective clauses (*q.v.*), are called **relative pronouns.** The words *what, which, whatever,* and *whichever,* when they are used as adjectives and in such a way that the clauses in which they stand are made adjective clauses, are called **relative adjectives.**

Rhetoric. See **Grammar.**

Sentence. The word *sentence* means (1) a group of words composed of a subject (with or without adjuncts) and a predicate (with or without adjuncts) and not grammatically dependent on any words outside itself (*e.g.*, "I will go," "I, being the person best acquainted with the situation, will go as soon as the carriage which I ordered has come"); or (2) two or more such groups joined by coördinating conjunctions or presented in such a way as to show that they are to be taken as a unit. A sentence of type 2 is called a **compound sentence.** Sentences of type 1 are divided into two classes, — **simple sentences** and **complex sentences.** All sentences are therefore usually said to fall into three classes — simple, complex, and compound. These are described in this vocabulary under their several names.

Sentence-element. A subject, a predicate, a predicate substantive or adjective, an absolute phrase, a modifier, a clause, or any other unit of sentence-structure. Any sentence-element other than a principal clause falls under the term **subordinate sentence-element,** as used in this book.

Sign of the infinitive. See **Infinitive.**

Simile. See **Metaphor.**

Simple conjunction. See **Conjunction.**

Simple sentence. A simple sentence has one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

Singular. See **Number.**

Subject. A substantive combined in discourse with a verb (except a gerund or a participle) and representing the person or thing regarding which the verb asserts something is called the **subject** of the verb; and the verb, in turn, is called the **predicate** of the substantive, or is said to be **predicated** of the substantive. Thus, in the expression "He goes," "he" is the subject of "goes," and "goes" is the predicate of "he." The words *subject* and *predicate* are often (in this book and elsewhere) used to designate respectively a subject and a predicate, as above defined, together with any adjuncts they may have. Thus in the sentence "The ploughman homeward plods his weary way," the phrase "the ploughman" may be said to be the subject and the phrase "homeward plods his weary way" the predicate; or the noun "ploughman" alone may be said to be the subject and the verb "plods" the predicate.

Subjunctive. See **Mode** and also **Indicative.**

Subordinate clause. See **Clause.**

Subordinate sentence-element. See **Sentence-element.**

Substantive. A substantive is a word by which, as by a name, some person or thing is called; *e.g., man, house, happiness, beauty, song, speech, Jupiter, Charlemagne, he, she.* A few substantives are called **pronouns;** these are as follows: *I, thou, he, she, it,* and their compounds ending in *self* or *selves; this, that, who, what, which, whether,* and their compounds ending in *ever,* or *soever; each, either, neither, some, any, many, few, all, both, aught, naught, such, other, one, none,* and a few others. The pronouns are divided into five classes: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns (see these headings in the Vocabulary). All substantives other than pronouns are called **nouns.** — The declension of typical nouns and of the principal pronouns that are inflected is shown in the following tables:

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	boy	boys
Poss. (*Gen.*)	boy's	boys'
Obj. (*Acc.*)	boy	boys
Nom.	man	men
Poss. (*Gen.*)	man's	men's
Obj. (*Acc.*)	man	men

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	I	we
Poss. (*Gen.*)	my, mine	our, ours
Obj. (*Acc.*)	me	us
Nom.	you	you
Poss. (*Gen.*)	your	your, yours
Obj. (*Acc.*)	you	you
Nom.	he	they
Poss. (*Gen.*)	his	their, theirs
Obj. (*Acc.*)	him	them
Nom.	she	they
Poss. (*Gen.*)	her, hers	their, theirs
Obj. (*Acc.*)	her	them
Nom.	it	they
Poss. (*Gen.*)	its	their, theirs
Obj. (*Acc.*)	it	them
Nom.	who	who
Poss. (*Gen.*)	whose	whose
Obj. (*Acc.*)	whom	whom

A substantive may be used syntactically in the following ways (which are explained in this Vocabulary under the appropriate headings): (1) as a subject, (2) as a predicate substantive, (3) as an appositive, (4) as a possessive (genitive) substantive, (5) as the object of a verb, (6) as the object of a preposition, (7) as an adverbial substantive, and (8) as an absolute substantive.

Substantive clause. A clause may be used as the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "*That he is a scholar* is certain"); as the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I know *that he is a scholar*"); as the object of a preposition (*e.g.*, "There is no doubt as to *whether he is a scholar*"); as

a predicate substantive (*e.g.*, "Truth is *that he is a scholar*"); as an appositive (*e.g.*, "This is certain — *that he is a scholar*"); as an adverbial substantive (*e.g.*, "I am sure *that he is a scholar*"); and as an absolute substantive (*e.g.*, "Granted *that he is a scholar*, he may yet be mistaken"). A clause used in one of these ways is a substantive clause.

Superlative. See **Comparison.**

Syntactic. See **Syntax.**

Syntax. The relations that words, when they are combined in discourse, bear to one another (*e.g.*, the relation of "he" to "goes" in the sentence "He goes," or of "carpenter" to "Nelson," in the sentence "Nelson, the carpenter, is here") are called syntactic relations, or collectively syntax. Syntactic relations comprise (1) the relations a single word may bear to another word or to a group of words (*e.g.*, the relation of a subject to a verb, of an adjective to a substantive, of a noun to an adjective-phrase, of a vocative substantive to a sentence); and (2) the relations a predication may bear to another predication (*viz.*, the relation between a principal and a dependent clause and the relation between coördinate clauses).

Tense. The several sets of forms and combinations that a verb has when it represents action as occurring at different points of time are called its tenses. Of these sets there are six, called respectively the **present tense,** the **past tense,** the **future tense,** the **perfect (present perfect) tense,** the **past perfect tense,** and the **future perfect tense.** The tenses of a typical verb are shown on pages 355 ff.

Transitive. A verb representing an action that necessarily affects some person or thing in such a way that the name of that person or thing may be made the direct object of the verb, is called a **transitive verb;** *e.g.*, *love, hate, have, carry, build.* A verb representing an action of such a kind that a direct object cannot logically be used with the verb is called an **intransitive verb;** *e.g.*, *stand, arise, become, whimper, bark, quarrel.* Many verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively; *e.g.*, "The fire burns brightly" ("burns" is intransitive); "He burns the paper" ("burns" is transitive); "The corn has grown" ("has grown" is intransitive); "He has grown a beard" ("has grown" is transitive).

Verb. A word used to assert an action, a condition, or the undergoing of an action; *e.g.*, *stand, strike, choose, be, become, remain, suffer, undergo.*

The various inflections and combinations (see **Voice, Mode, Tense, Person,** and **Number**) of a typical verb are shown in the table on pages 355–359. The words *I, you, he, we, they,* and *it* are inserted merely to show the way in which the forms they precede are used; they should not be regarded as necessary parts of those forms, for they are not parts at all. Words inclosed in parentheses are variants of the words they follow.

Vocative substantive (nominative of address). A substantive used in direct address. See **Direct address.**

Voice. A verb is said to be in the **active voice** when it asserts that the person or thing represented by the subject is, does, or undergoes something; *e.g.,* "He strikes," "He heard," "I see." A verb is said to be in the **passive voice** when it asserts that something is done to the person or thing represented by the subject; *e.g.,* "He is struck," "He was heard," "I am seen." With one exception all the passive forms of any verb are composed of the several forms of the auxiliary *to be,* and the past participle of the principal verb; the one exception is the past participle itself. See the table on page 355.

Vowel. The letters *a, e, i, o,* and *u* are vowels. The letters *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x,* and *z* are consonants. *W* when used as in *weak,* and *y* when used as in *young* are consonants; *w* when used as in *how,* and *y* when used as in *try* are vowels.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TO TAKE[1]

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **take, took, taken**

Indicative mode

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PRESENT TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I take 2. you take 3. he takes	SIMPLE we take you take they take	1. I am taken 2. you are taken 3. he is taken	we are taken you are taken they are taken
	EMPHATIC 1. I do take 2. you take 3. he takes	EMPHATIC we do take you do take they do take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. I am taking 2. you are taking 3. he is taking	PROGRESSIVE we are taking you are taking they are taking		
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I took 2. you took 3. he took	SIMPLE we took you took they took	1. I was taken 2. you were taken 3. he was taken	we were taken you were taken they were taken
	EMPHATIC 1. I did take 2. you did take 3. he did take	EMPHATIC we did take you did take they did take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. I was taking 2. you were taking	PROGRESSIVE we were taking you were taking		
	3. he was taking	they were taking		
FUTURE TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I shall (will) take 2. you will (shall) take 3. he will (shall) take	SIMPLE we shall (will) take you will (shall) take they will (shall) take	I shall (will) be taken, etc.	
	PROGRESSIVE I shall (will) be taking, etc.			

[1] See the explanatory remarks under **Verb.**

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE
	Indicative mode — continued		
PERFECT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	I have been taken, etc.
	SIMPLE		
	1. I have taken	we have taken	
	2. you have taken	you have taken	
	3. he has taken	they have taken	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I have been taking, etc.		
PAST PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		I had been taken, etc.
	1. I had taken	we had taken	
	2. you had taken	you had taken	
	3. he had taken	they had taken	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I had been taking, etc.		
FUTURE PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		I shall (will) have been taken, etc.
	I shall (will) have taken, etc.		
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I shall (will) have been taking, etc.		
	Subjunctive mode		
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR / PLURAL
	SIMPLE		1. if I be taken — if we be taken
	1. if I take	if we take	2. if you be taken — if you be taken
	2. if you take	if you take	3. if he be taken — if they be taken
	3. if he take	if they take	
	EMPHATIC		
	1. if I do take	if we do take	
	2. if you do take	if you do take	
	3. if he do take	if they do take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	1. if I be taking	if we be taking	
	2. if you be taking	if you be taking	
	3. if he be taking	if they be taking	

Subjunctive mode — continued

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE 1. if I took 2. if you took 3. if he took	if we took if you took if they took	1. if I were taken 2. if you were taken 3. if he were taken	if we were taken if you were taken if they were taken
	EMPHATIC 1. if I did take 2. if you did take 3. if he did take	if we did take if you did take if they did take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. if I were taking 2. if you were taking 3. if he were taking	if we were taking if you were taking if they were taking		
FUTURE TENSE	[The future subjunctive is exactly like the future indicative.]			
PERFECT TENSE	[The perfect subjunctive is exactly like the perfect indicative.]			
PAST PERFECT TENSE	[The past perfect subjunctive is exactly like the past perfect indicative.]			
FUTURE PERFECT TENSE	[The future perfect subjunctive is exactly like the future perfect indicative.]			

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE
	Potential mode [1]		
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
PRESENT TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I may *or* can take 2. you may *or* can take 3. he may *or* can take we may *or* can take you may *or* can take they may *or* can take PROGRESSIVE I may *or* can be taking, etc.		I may *or* can be taken, etc.
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I might *or* could take 2. you might *or* could take 3. he might *or* could take we might *or* could take you might *or* could take they might *or* could take PROGRESSIVE I might *or* could be taking, etc.		I might *or* could be taken, etc.
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I may *or* can have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I may *or* can have been taking, etc.		I may *or* can have been taken, etc.
PAST PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I might *or* could have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I might *or* could have been taking, etc.		I might *or* could have been taken, etc.
	Imperative mode		
	SIMPLE: take EMPHATIC: do take PROGRESSIVE: be taking		be taken

[1] See the footnote on page 306.

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
	Infinitive mode	
PRESENT TENSE	SIMPLE INFINITIVE: to take PROGRESSIVE INFINITIVE: to be taking GERUND: taking	INFINITIVE: to be taken GERUND: being taken
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE INFINITIVE: to have taken PROGRESSIVE INFINITIVE: to have been taking GERUND: having taken	INFINITIVE: to have been taken GERUND: having been taken
	Participial mode, OR *participles*	
PRESENT TENSE	taking	being taken
PAST TENSE	[There is no past participle in the active voice.]	taken
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE: having taken PROGRESSIVE: having been taking	having been taken

APPENDIX C

A List of Words Often Mispronounced

In the case of a few words in the following list, pronunciations different from those indicated in the right-hand column are admitted by some authorities; these words are marked with an asterisk (*). The pronunciations given opposite such words are those favored by the great majority of lexicographers. In the case of all the words not marked with an asterisk, the pronunciations indicated are the only correct ones.

The accentual and diacritical marks are not intended to give an exhaustive description of the pronunciation of each word, but only to point out common errors. Of the signs that are not self-explanatory the meanings are shown in the following table:

ă is pronounced like *a* in *at.*
ā is pronounced like *a* in *mate.*
ä̆ is pronounced like *a* in *climate.*
ä is pronounced like *a* in *arm.*
ȧ is pronounced like *a* in *ask.*
ĕ is pronounced like *e* in *men.*
ē is pronounced like *ee* in *see.*
ḝ is pronounced like *e* in the first syllable of *event.*
ẽ is pronounced like *e* in *fern.*
ĭ is pronounced like *i* in *tin.*
ī is pronounced like *i* in *wine.*
ŏ is pronounced like *o* in *lot.*
ō is pronounced like *o* in *host.*
ô is pronounced like *o* in *orb.*
ŭ is pronounced like *u* in *bun.*
ū is pronounced like *u* in *use.*
ů is pronounced like *u* in *unite.*
u̇ is pronounced like *u* in *bull.*
o͝o is pronounced like *oo* in *tool.*
o͡o is pronounced like *oo* in *foot.*
ou is pronounced as in *thou.*
zh is pronounced like *z* in *azure.*

Words often accented on the wrong syllable

	Correct pronunciation
abdomen *	ab dō′men
accent (verb)	ac cent′
acclimate *	ac clī′mate
acumen	a cū′men
address	ad dress′
admirable	ad′mirable
adult	a dult′
adverse	ad′verse
adversary	ad′ver sa ry
albumen	al bu′men
alias	ā′lias
alloy	al loy′
ally *	al ly′
alternate * (adjective and noun)	al tēr′nate
ancestral	an ses′tral
applicable	ap′plicable
apropos	ăp′rō pō′
brigand	brĭg′and
choleric	kŏl′eric
comparable	com′par a ble
condolence	con dō′lence
construe *	con′strue
contour *	con tour′
contrary	con′tra ry
conversant	con′ver sant
cuckoo	kŏŏk′ōō
defects	de fects′
deficit	def′i cit
despicable	des′picable
detail	de tail′
detour	de tour′
dirigible	dir′i ji ble
discharge	dis charge′
discourse	dis course′
divan	di van′

	Correct pronunciation
elevated	el′e vat ed
encore	en core′
entire	en tire′
exquisite	ex′quisite
extant *	ex′tant
formidable	for′midable
gondola	gon′dola
grimace	gri māce′
guardian	guard′i an
harass	hăr′ass
Herculean	Her cū′le an
hospitable	hos′pitable
illustrate *	il lus′trate
impious	im′pĭ ous
incognito	in cog′nito
incomparable	in com′parable
inevitable	in ev′itable
inquiry	in quī′ry
lamentable	lam′entable
mediocre	mē′di o cre
mischievous	mis′chie vous
misconstrue *	mis con′strue
municipal	mu nis′i pal
obligatory *	ob′ligatory
orchestra	or′chestra
orchestral	or kes′ tral
pariah *	pä′riah
peremptory *	pĕr′emptory
pianist *	pĭ an′ist
piquant	pēk′ant *or* pĭk′ant
positively	pos′i tive ly
precedence	prĕ cēd′ence
precedent (adjective)	prĕ cēd′ent
precedent (noun)	prĕs′e dent
presage (noun)	prē′sage *or* prĕs′age
presage (verb)	pre sāge′

		Correct pronunciation
	primarily	pri′ma ri ly
	recall	re call′
	recourse	re course′
	research	re search′
	robust	ro bust′
	romance	ro mance′
	sepulture	sĕp′ulture
	theater	the′a ter
	vagary	vȧ gā′ry
Words in which certain vowels are often mis-pronounced	Adonis	A dō′nis
	accurate	accūrate
	alma mater	alma mā ter
	altercation *	ăltercation
	amenable	a mē′nable
	apparatus	apparātus
	apricot *	āpricot
	aviator	a′vi a tor
	Basil	Băz′il
	because	becôs
	biographical	bīographical
	biography	bīography
	bouquet	bōō kā′ *or* bōō′kā (not "bō-")
	brooch *	brōch
	brougham	brōō′am *or* brōōm
	brusque *	brŏŏsk
	cantaloupe *	can′ta lōōp
	catch	cătch (not "cĕtch")
	chock-full	Pronounced as spelled; not "chuck-full."
	choler	kŏl′er
	Cleopatra	Cleopātra
	clique	klēk
	constable	kŭn stable
	coupon	kōō′pon

	Correct pronunciation
courtesan *	kŭr te zan
creek	krēk
crotch	Pronounced as spelled; not "crutch."
culinary	kū'linary
defalcate	dĕ făl'cate (not "-fawl-")
defalcation	dē făl cation *or* dĕf ăl cation (not "-fawl-")
data	dā'ta (not dat ta)
demise	dĕ mīz'
describe	dĕ scribe'
destruction	dĕ struc'tion
directly	di rect'ly
extol *	ex tŏl'
faucet	faw'set
gape *	gāp
garrulous	găr ru lous (not "găr yu-lous")
genealogy	jĕn e ălogy *or* jē ne ălogy (not "-ology")
genuine	jen u ĭn (not "-īn")
ghoul	gōōl
gratis	grā tis
hearth	härth
heinous	hā nous
historian	his tō' ri an
hoof	hōōf
hypocrisy	hĭ poc'ri sy
ignoramus	ig no rā'mus
implacable	im plā'cable
Italian	Ĭ tal yan (not "Ī-")
joust	jŭst *or* jōōst
jugular	jū gŭ lar (not "jŭg-")
literature	lit er a tūre (not "-toor")
mineralogy	min er ăl ogy (not "-ology")

	Correct pronunciation
nape	nāp
new	nū (not "nō͞o")
Pall Mall	Pĕl Mĕl
panegyric	pan e jĭr ic *or* pan e jĕr ic
pathos	pā thos
penalize	pē′nal ize
premise (noun)	prĕm′iss
premise (verb)	prē mīz′
presentation	prĕz entation
pretty	prĭt y
programme	prō′grăm (not "-grum")
quay	kē
radiator	rā′di a tor
regular	reg yu lar
rinse	Pronounced as spelled; not "rense."
roily	Pronounced as spelled; not "rī ly."
roof	rō͞of
root	rō͞ot
route *	rō͞ot
sacrilegious	sac ri lē′jus
salve *	säv
simultaneous *	sīmultaneous
sinecure	sī ne cure
sleek	slēk
slough (noun, *mire*)	slou
slough (noun, *cast skin*)	slŭf
slough (verb)	slŭf
status	stā tus
trow	trō
ultimatum	ul ti mā tum
verbatim	ver bā′tim
virulent	vĭr′ụ lent (not "-yulent")
xylophone	zī lophone
zoölogy	zō ŏl ogy (not "zō͞o-")

	Correct pronunciation	
archipelago	ar ki pel'a go	Words in which certain consonants are often mispronounced
aversion	a ver shun (not "-zhun")	
banquet	bang'quet	
bequeath	be queath' (to rhyme with "breathe")	
cello	chel'o	
chaise	shāz	
English	ing'glish	
flaccid	flak'sid (See Rule 306, note.)	
handkerchief	hang' ker chief	
has (in expressions like *He has to go*)	hăz (not "hăss")	
have (in expressions like *I have to go*)	hăv (not "hăf")	
oleomargarine	The *g* is hard, as in *get*. (See Rule 306, note.)	
partner	Pronounced as spelled; not "pard ner."	
schism	sizm	
turgid	tur jid (See Rule 306, note.)	
used (when followed by *to*)	ūzd (not "ūst")	
version	ver shun (not "-zhun")	
with	The *th* is pronounced as in *thus*.	

accidentally	ac ci dent'al ly	Words from which certain sounds are often incorrectly omitted
arctic	arc'tic	
artistically	ar tis'ti cal ly	
authoritatively	au thor'i ta tive ly	
auxiliary *	aux il i ary	
cemetery	cem'e ter y	
considerable	con sid'er a ble	
cruel	cru'el	
different	dif fer ent	

	Correct pronunciation
factory	fac'to ry
facts	fakts
February	Feb ru ary
geometry	ge om'et ry
government	gov'ern ment
laboratory	lab'o ra to ry
library	li'bra ry
Messrs.*	měsh yĕrz *or* mēs'yĕrz ("Messerz" is wholly unauthorized.)
piano-forte	piano-for'te
pumpkin	pump kin
recognize	rec'og nize
what	hwŏt
whether	hwether
which	hwich
while	hwile
white	hwite

Words to which an additional sound is often incorrectly added

almond *	ä'mond
athlete	ath'lete
athletic	ath let'ic
buoy	bwoi *or* boi
casualty	caz'u al ty (not "-al'i ty")
cerement	sēr ment
chasm	kasm
column	kol um (not "-yum")
conduit	kŏn'dit *or* kŭn'dit
daguerreotype	da ger' o type
electoral	e lec to ral (not "ri al")
elm	One syllable
enthusiasm	en thū zi asm
falcon *	faw con
film	One syllable
grievous	grēv'ous
helm	One syllable

	Correct pronunciation
mischievous	mis′chĕv ous
often	of en
poignant *	poi′nănt *or* poin′yănt
salmon	să mon
ad infinitum	ad in fi nī′tum
charivari	sha rē′va rē′ (not "shiv-eree")
début	dā′bụ′
dishabille *	dis′a bĭl *or* dĭs ȧ bēl′
dishevel	di shev′el
dramatis personæ	dram′a tis per sō′nē
finis	fī′nis
foyer * (*e.g.*, the *foyer* of a theater)	fwä′yā′ *or* foy′er
gaol	jāl
irrelevant	Pronounced as spelled; not "irrevelant."
larynx	lăr′inx *or* lā′rinx (not "lar nix")
posthumous	pŏst′humous *or* pŏs′tu-mous
rendezvous	rĕn de voo *or* rŏn de voo
sarsaparilla	sär sa pa ril la (not "săss-parilla")
sough *	sŭf
vaudeville	vōd′vĭl
viz.	An arbitrary sign for the Latin word *videlicet* (pronounced vi dĕl′i set). In reading *viz.* aloud, say either "videlicet" or "namely" (the English equivalent of *videlicet*); do not say "vizz."

Words often mispronounced in various ways

APPENDIX D

CONNECTIVES

Connectives as an aid to coherence

1. The following list of transitional words and phrases may aid in gaining coherence within the sentence and within the paragraph. Inexperienced writers often fail to make clear the precise relationship of their ideas either because they fail to use connectives or because they use the wrong ones. Their vocabulary of transitional words is limited to a small group, such as *and*, *but*, *so*. Connectives should, of course, not be overused; the relationship in the thought may be so clear that transitional words are not necessary.

Connectives and punctuation

2. A study of connectives may also be an aid to the understanding of the rules of punctuation. (See Rules 73, 253, 255 *b*.) The grossest errors in punctuation are due to the writer's failure to recognize the relative rank of the parts of a sentence. He must be able to distinguish between independent and subordinate parts, and to recognize coördinate relationship. Transitional words indicate to the reader whether parts of a sentence are independent or subordinate, and whether they are coördinate with one another. (The following lists are in no way complete.)

Connectives within the sentence (i) coördinating words

Transitional Words within the Sentence

3. I. Coördinating words

A. Classification according to meaning

1. Addition: *and*, *further*, *furthermore*, *besides*, *also*, *moreover*, *likewise*, *nor* (*and not*), *too*, *again*, *and then*, *finally*.

2. Contrast: *but, however, yet, and yet, still, nevertheless, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand.*
3. Result: *therefore, hence, consequently, so, accordingly, thereupon, thus, wherefore, then.*
4. Alternation: *or, nor, otherwise, else, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, as . . . so, both . . . and, not only . . . but also, the one . . . the other, on the one hand . . . on the other hand.*
5. Cause: *for.*
6. Repetition, exemplification, intensification: *in fact, indeed, in other words, that is, namely.*

B. Grammatical classification

1. Pure conjunctions; *and, but, for, or, neither, nor.*
2. Correlatives: *either . . . or, neither . . . nor, as . . . so, both . . . and, not only . . . but also, the one . . . the other, on the one hand . . . on the other hand.*
3. Conjunctive adverbs: *further, furthermore, besides, also, moreover, likewise, again, then, finally, however, yet, still, nevertheless, notwithstanding, therefore, hence, consequently, so, accordingly, thereupon, thus, wherefore, indeed, namely.* The phrases *on the con-*

trary, on the other hand, etc., are used as conjunctive adverbs.

NOTE. — It is possible for a conjunctive adverb to connect parts that are not coördinate.

Right: Although it was stormy, yet we decided to go.
Right: If you follow the directions carefully, then you will have no trouble.

Misuse of coördinating words: *and* and *but*

4. Distinguish between *and* and *but*. Note carefully whether the statements are in the same line of thought or are in opposition.

Wrong: After I finished high school, I wanted to work in my uncle's shop, and my father wanted me to go to college.
Right: After I finished high school, I wanted to work in my uncle's shop, but my father wanted me to go to college.

But

5. Be certain that *but* connects statements that are really adversative.

Illogical: For an examination, a student cannot review all of the work covered, but he must have the ability to select the most important points in the course and concentrate on them.
Right: For an examination, a student cannot review all of the work covered, but he should select the most important points in the course and concentrate on them.

Illogical: In vain we begged her to stay at home, but she was determined to go.
Right: We begged her to stay at home, but she was determined to go.

Illogical: The complaints have come not from the faculty, but they have come from the students.
Right: The complaints have come not from the faculty, but from the students.

Illogical: He was impetuous and self-confident, but always courageous.

Right: He was impetuous and self-confident and always courageous.

For and *because*

6. Do not confuse *for* and *because*. The *for*-clause gives the reason for the belief in a statement; the *because*-clause gives the reason for the statement.

Wrong: They did not come yesterday because I met the train.

Right: They did not come yesterday, for I met the train. (The writer's reason for knowing that they did not come.)

Right: I was absent from class yesterday because I had not done the assigned reading. (Either *for* or *because* may be used in this sentence. *Because* states explicitly an immediate cause or reason felt to be closely related to the principal clause; *for* is less explicit and introduces a statement felt to be relatively independent.)

So

7. The use of *so* to express sequence or result is best limited to informal writing. (See Rule 65.) *Therefore, wherefore, consequently, accordingly, so, then*, all denote a succession usually causal, but they differ in these respects: *therefore* is the most formal and is used in strict reasoning; *consequently* is used in close logical sequence; *accordingly* is less formal and does not indicate so close a logical sequence as *therefore* and *consequently*; *so* and *then* are the least formal of all and do not necessarily imply a close causal sequence.

Right: The teaching of law as a profession should no more be irrational than the teaching of it as part of a liberal education or as a preparation for law studies. The case method, therefore, falls short and is slavish if it stops in each instance with the first case in a series.—Woodrow Wilson.

Right: From still earlier centuries had come down an inordinate fondness for allegorizing everything on which allegory could lay its hands. And so there sprang up the Bestiaries, amazing compilations of

beasts, and birds, and fishes, endowed with qualities they never had, and allegorized into types of sacred things.— J. L. Lowes.

That is, that is to say

8. Be certain that *that is, that is to say, i.e.*, introduce material that is the equivalent of or the explanation of what precedes rather than the correction of it.

Wrong: I have asked all of the class to come; that is, all that I could reach by telephone.

Right: I have asked all of the class to come; at least, all that I could reach by telephone.

Right: He makes frequent use of feminine rhyme; that is, a rhyme in which two syllables, one accented and one unaccented, occur at the end of each line.

(ii) Subordinating words

9. II. Subordinating words

A. Relative pronouns: *who, which, what, that, as.*

B. Subordinating conjunctions

1. Time: *when, whenever, while, before, after, until, till, since, as soon as, as long as, as often as, now, now that, prior to, once.*
2. Place: *where, wherever, whence, whencesoever, whither, whithersoever, whereto.*
3. Cause: *because, as, since, inasmuch as, seeing that, now that, owing to the fact that, due to the fact that.*
4. Purpose: *that, so that, in order that, lest, for the purpose that.*
5. Degree or comparison: *as, than, more than, rather than, as . . . as, not so . . . as, such . . . as, just as . . . so.*

6. Condition: *if, so, unless, on condition that, provided that, supposing, in case that, but that, so that.*

7. Concession: *though, although, even if, no matter how.*

8. Result: *that, so that, so . . . that, such . . . that, and so, but that, such that.*

9. Manner: *as, as if, as though.*

Misuse of subordinating words: *as*

10. Do not use *as* for *that* or *whether*; *as if* for *that; so as* for *so that.*

Wrong: I don't know as I am going.
Right: I don't know that I am going; [or] I don't know whether I am going.

Awkward: It seems as if he ought to do his share.
Improved: It seems that he ought to do his share.

Wrong: We went early so as we could see the parade.
Right: We went early so that we could see the parade.

As and *since* used ambiguously

11. Be certain that *as* and *since* are not used ambiguously. They may express both time and cause.

Ambiguous: Since she has been ill, we have been very much worried about her.
Clear: We have been very much worried about her because she has been ill; [or] Since her illness, we have been very much worried about her.

Because, since, as

12. Distinguish between *because, since, as. Because* gives an immediate cause or reason; *since* is less formal and more incidental than *because; as* gives a reason even more incidental than *since.* The *since-* and *as*-clauses often begin their sentences. The conjunctions *for, because, since,* are often to be preferred to *as* to express cause.

Right: I returned the book because it was due.
Right: Since you are ready, we may as well go.

Right: As we have gone thus far, we might as well go farther.

But what for *but that, that*

13. Do not use *but what* for *but that* or *that.*

Wrong: I do not know but what I had better go to see her.
Right: I do not know but that I had better go to see her.

Wrong: I have no doubt but what she would like to go.
Right: I have no doubt that she would like to go.

How for *that*

14. Do not use *how* for *that.*

Wrong: I had heard how it was possible to reach there in two days.
Right: I had heard that it was possible to reach there in two days.

If for *whether*

15. Do not use *if* for *whether* to introduce a noun clause used as the object of a verb.

Wrong: Please let me know if you received the check. (Do not let me know if you did not receive it.)
Right: Please let me know whether you received the check.

Like for *as, as if*

16. Do not use *like* (a preposition) for *as* or *as if, as though* (conjunctions), to express manner.

Wrong: He acted like he had made a great mistake.
Right: He acted as though he had made a great mistake.

So for *so that*

17. Do not use *so* for *so that* to express purpose.

Wrong: We went early so we could see the parade.
Right: We went early so that we could see the parade.

Than for *when*

18. Do not use *than* for *when.*

Wrong: We had hardly started than she began to cry.
Right: We had hardly started when she began to cry.

That and *which*

19. *That* is generally used to introduce a restrictive clause and *which*, a non-restrictive clause. (See Rule 245.)

Right: Stories that deal with crime are not suitable for children.

Right: Those stories, which deal with crime, are not suitable for children.

20. Do not use *until* for *when*. *Until* for *when*

Wrong: He had been gone only a few minutes until a high school friend of mine came in.

Right: He had been gone only a few minutes when a high school friend of mine came in.

21. Do not use *when* for *although* or *even though*, *because*, *that*, or *whereupon*. *When*

Bad: When they granted all of her requests, she was not satisfied.

Right: Even though they granted all of her requests, she was not satisfied.

Bad: We were worried when he had not written.

Right: We were worried because he had not written.

Bad: It was at this time in my life when I most appreciated giving to my friends the things they desired.

Right: It was at this time in my life that I most appreciated giving, etc.

Bad: She tore the letter open and read it hastily; when she ran from the room.

Right: She tore the letter open and read it hastily; whereupon she ran from the room.

22. *When* indicates a point in time; *while* a duration of time. *When* and *while*

Wrong: She was working every possible moment when her classmates were loafing.

Right: She was working every possible moment while her classmates were loafing.

Right: She was working when we went to see her yesterday.

23. Do not use *where* for *that*. *Where* for *that*

Wrong: I saw in the paper where a man had been arrested for forgery.

Right: I saw in the paper that a man had been arrested for forgery.

While

24. *While* may mean (1) *during the time that,* (2) *at the same time that,* (3) *although.* Avoid the loose use of *while.*

Misleading: She read to the children while I sang to them.

Clear: She read to the children and I sang to them.

Vague: While she was the most popular girl on the campus, she held no office.

Clear: Although she was the most popular girl on the campus, she held no office.

Vague: Mary enjoyed going to dances and parties while her sister preferred to stay at home.

Clear: Mary enjoyed going to dances and parties but her sister preferred to stay at home.

Right: She read to me while I sewed.

Right: I lived with them while I was in college.

Who, which, that

25. Use the relative pronoun *who* to refer to persons, *which* to animals and inanimate objects, *that* to persons, animals, and inanimate objects.

Transitional Words within the Paragraph

26. (The transitional words within the sentence may be used to link sentences together. (See p. 370.) These words will not be repeated here.)

1. Addition: *in addition to what has been said, more than this, equally important,* etc.
2. Contrast: *in contrast to this, at the same time, for all that, after all, although this may be true,* etc.
3. Result: *since this is true, under these circumstances, under these conditions, it follows that,* etc.
4. Purpose: *for this purpose, with this end in view,* etc.

5. Repetition, exemplification, intensification: *to be sure, as I have said, in other words, in the same way, in short, that is to say, as has been noted,* etc.
6. Time: *at length, after a lapse of time, after a few days, in the meantime, meanwhile, immediately,* etc.
7. Place: *on the opposite side, near by, adjacent to, yonder, beyond,* etc.
8. Series: *first, second, third,* etc.
9. Reference to a word or group of words in a preceding sentence: *he, she, it,* etc.; *this, that,* etc.; *in this manner, in this way, thus,* etc.

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child - 2nd & 3rd person

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